

Thai Transitivity: A Functional Grammar Analysis

by

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DECLARATION

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for a degree, diploma or certificate by the University or any other institution, except by way of background information and duly acknowledged in the thesis, and, to the best of my knowledge and beliefs, it contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

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Date: 25 / 11 / 05

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Sita Yiemkuntitavorn

For my grandmother who is always in my heart.

‘Rest in peace’

Abstract

This research is a study on a functional analysis of an aspect of Thai grammar. It is based on the theoretical framework of Systemic Functional Theory developed by Halliday and other systemicists. Though Systemic Functional Theory has been widely used in the West for linguistic analysis, it has not captured the attention of research in Thai linguistics. Thus, this study attempts to make this research transition as its contribution to Thai linguistics. The focus is on the description of the experiential grammar of the clause or the system of TRANSITIVITY. In Functional Grammar, which is the core of Systemic Functional Theory, formal units in natural language display a variety of simultaneous grammatical structures, which are fused together in the process of realisation. These structures are the syntagmatic expressions of paradigmatic choices which are themselves realisationally related to the metafunctions of language. Both the paradigmatic and syntagmatic aspects of the experiential grammar of the Thai clause will be examined. This study consists of three components: (a) reviewing the linguistic analysis of Thai from different grammatical perspectives, (b) examining the reasons why Functional Grammar provides deep linguistic insights into the understanding of Thai linguistics, and (c) conducting a comprehensive analysis of the Thai system of transitivity.

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Table of Contents

CHAPTER I

Research Issues and Context of this Study

1.1	Introduction	1
1.2	Thailand	1
1.3	Issues and Aspects of Research Methodology	4
1.3.1	Method and Approach	4
1.3.2	Triangulation and Validity	5
1.3.3	Research Dichotomy: Quantitative and Qualitative	6
1.3.4	Ethnography	8
1.4	Research in Applied Linguistics	10
1.5	Research in Theoretical Linguistics and its Impact on Thai Linguistics	12
1.6	Aim and Significance of This Study	14
1.7	Text Analysis in this study	17
1.8	Symbols and Glosses	20
1.9	Summary	20

CHAPTER II

An Overview of Thai language

2.1	The Historical Background of Thai Language	22
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2.2	Research on Thai Grammar	28
2.2.1	Thai Traditional Grammar	28
2.2.2	Thai Structural Grammar	29
2.2.3	Thai Transformation Grammar	33
2.3	The Current Thai Language	35
2.4	Thai Grammar	39
2.4.1	Sentence Structure	40
2.4.2	Thai Pronouns	41
2.4.3	Articles and Plurals	42
2.4.4	Adjectives	43
2.4.5	Adverbs	44
2.4.6	Tenses	44
2.4.7	Wh-questions	46
2.4.8	Passive particles	47
2.5	Summary	48

CHAPTER III

Systemic Functional Approach

3.1	Introduction	49
3.2	An Overview of the Systemic Functional Linguistics	54
3.2.1	Text and Context	55
3.2.2	The Strata of Language	59
3.3	The Overview of Systemic Functional Grammar	62
3.3.1	The History of Systemic Functional Grammar	62

3.3.2	The Differences between Functional Grammar and the Other Grammar	64
3.4	Exploring Functional Grammar	76
3.4.1	Three kinds of Meaning	76
3.4.2	Three kinds of metafunction	77
3.5	Summary	82

CHAPTER IV

The System of TRANSITIVITY

4.1	Introduction	83
4.2	The General Meaning of TRANSITIVITY	84
4.3	Process types	85
4.3.1	Material Process: Processes of Doing	86
4.3.2	Mental Processes: Processes of Sensing	87
4.3.3	Relational Processes: Processes of Being	89
4.3.4	Behavioural Processes	94
4.3.5	Verbal Processes	95
4.3.6	Existential Processes	96
4.4	Beneficiary and Range	97
4.4.1	Beneficiary	98
4.4.2	Range	99
4.5	Circumstantial Elements	99
4.5.1	Location and Extent	100
4.5.2	Manner	101
4.5.3	Cause	102

4.5.4 Contingency	104
4.5.5 Accompaniment	104
4.5.6 Matter	104
4.5.7 Role	105
4.5.8 Angle	105
4.6 Summary	106

CHAPTER V

Doing Process in Thai Language

5.1 Introduction	107
5.2 Material Processes	108
5.2.1 Identifying the Material Process: Recognition Criteria	108
5.2.1.1 Verbs in Material Processes	109
5.2.1.2 Number and Nature of Participants	111
5.2.1.3 The Probe	124
5.3 Two Perspectives on Voice in Thai: Ergativity and Transitivity	124
5.4 Summary	127
5.5 The Behavioural Process	128
5.6 Criteria for Identifying the Behavioural Process	128
5.6.1 Characteristics of Behavioral Processes	128
5.6.2 Number and Nature of Participant	133
5.6.3 The Probe	135
5.7 Types of Behavioural Process	137
5.8 Summary	138
5.9 Concluding Remarks	138

CHAPTER VI

Projecting Processes in Thai Language

6.1 Introduction

139

6.2	Mental processes	139
6.3	Identifying the Mental Process: Recognition Criteria	139
6.3.1	The Mental process in Thai	140
6.3.2	Choice of unmarked Present Tense	143
6.3.3	The Probe	145
6.3.4	The Number of Participants	146
6.3.5	The Nature of Senser	147
6.3.6	The Nature of Phenomenon	147
6.3.7	Strong Collocation of Mental Process with Circumstance: Manner: Degree	150
6.3.8	Reversibility	151
6.3.9	Projection	153
6.3.10	Proposition and Proposal	156
6.4	Type of Mental Process	160
6.5	Summary	166
6.6	Verbal Processes	167
6.7	Identifying the Verbal Process: Recognition Criteria	171
6.7.1	The Nature of Different Participant Relationships in the Process	172
6.7.2	Strong Collocation of Verbal Process with Circumstance of Matter	178

6.8	Verbal Projection	179
6.9	Types of Verbal Process	182
6.10	Summary	184
6.11	Concluding Remarks	185

CHAPTER VII

Being Process in Thai

7.1 Introduction **186**

7.2	Existential Processes	186
7.3	Existential Processes Criteria	187
7.3.1	Verbs in Existential Processes	187
7.3.2	Participant	190
7.3.3	The Strong Relationship between Existential Process and Circumstantial Element : Location	192
7.4	Summary	194
7.5	Relational Processes	194
7.5.1	Intensive Attributive Processes	196
7.5.2	Intensive Identified Processes	200
7.5.3	Circumstantial Processes	204
7.5.4	Possessive Processes	211
7.6	Summary	219
7.7	Concluding Remarks	220

CHAPTER VIII

Circumstantial Elements in Thai Language

8.1	Introduction	221
8.2	Circumstances and Participants	221
8.3	Cases of Ambiguity	227
8.4	Types of Circumstance	233
8.4.1	Extent	233
8.4.2	Location	235
8.4.3	Manner	241
8.4.4	Contingency	244
8.4.5	Cause	245
8.4.6	Accompaniment	249
8.4.7	Matter	253
8.4.8	Role	254
8.4.9	Angle	256
8.5	Summary	257
8.6	Concluding Remarks	257

CHAPTER IX

Implications, Conclusions and Recommendations

9.1	Introduction	258
9.2	Implications for Language Teaching	258
9.3	Summary	268
9.4	Suggestions for Future Research	269
9.5	Concluding remarks	269
	References	270

List of figures

Figure 2.4.2-1	Personal Pronouns	41
Figure 2.4.2.-2	Possessive Pronouns	42
Figure 2.4.6	Tenses	44
Figure 3.2.2	Rank Scale at the Grammatical Stratum	61
Figure 3.4.1	Analysis from the Interpersonal Perspective	78
Figure 3.4.2	Interpersonal Analysis of a Passive Clause	79
Figure 3.4.3	Analysis from Interpersonal Perspective	79
Figure 3.4.4	Experiential Analysis of a Passive Clause	79
Figure 3.4.5	Analysis from a Textual Perspective	80
Figure 3.4.6	Textual Analysis of a Passive Clause	80
Figure 4.3.1.1	Active and Passive Clauses	86
Figure 4.3.1-2	Active and Passive in an Abstract Process	87
Figure 4.3.2	Senser and Phenomenon	88
Figure 4.3.5	Target and Recipient in a Verbal Process	95
Figure 5.3	Transitive and Ergative Patterning in Thai	127
Figure 7.4	Relational Processes	195
Figure 9.1	The Relationship between Language and Social Context	260
Figure 9.2	Text (language) and Contexts	261
Figure 9.3	Mode Field and Tenor	262
Figure 9.4	Strata or Levels of the Language	263

List of Tables

Table 2.3.1	The Thai Alphabet	36
Table 2.3.2	Thai Sounds	37
Table 2.3.3	Basic Vowel	38
Table 3.2.2	Functional Relations VS Metafunction	75
Table 3.4	Context, Semantics & Lexicogrammar: Metafunctional Resonance	81
Table 4.3.3-1	The Principal types of Relational Process	90
Table 4.3.3-2	Attributes and Carriers	91
Table 4.3.3-3	Identified and Identifier	92
Table 4.3	Process types, their Meanings and key Participants	97
Table 4.5.1	Location and Extent	101
Table 4.5.8	Circumstantial Elements	106
Table 6.4	Range in the Verbal Process	177

Preface

This thesis presents systemic functional grammar on Thai transitivity following Hallidayan theory in his “Introduction to Functional Grammar”. It aims to analyse the particular model of grammar in Thai language.

The first two chapters are introductory. Chapter one, in particular, deals with an overview of this study, and chapter two deals with the background of Thai language. Chapter three and chapter four are the literature reviews of Functional grammar and the TRANSITIVITY system. Chapter five to chapter eight contains the analyses of Functional Grammar on Thai TRANSITIVITY. The last chapter deals with the implication, conclusion and suggestions for further research.

If there are places where my explanations or interpretations are incorrect, then I accept full responsibility for such errors.

CHAPTER I

Research issues and context of this study

1.1 Introduction

The main aim of this research is to examine Thai sentence structure in terms of the theoretical linguistic concept of transitivity. This concept was originally developed by Halliday (1967), the founder of Systemic Functional Linguistics (also known as Functional Grammar or Systemic Functional Grammar). This theory has been most influential in modern linguistics and it has been used as a theoretical framework for studying languages other than English.

This chapter starts with a brief discussion of Thailand and its culture. As this study is primarily a linguistic research, it is essential to discuss different aspects of research methodology and some central research concepts underlying research methodology. The discussion then moves to research in applied linguistics and theoretical linguistics. Finally the discussion will specifically deal with the aim and research methodology employed in this study.

1.2 Thailand

Thailand, covering an area of 514,000 square kilometres, is located in the central part of Southeast Asia. It shares borders with Myanmar to the west and north, Laos to the northeast, Kampuchea to the east and Malaysia to the south. Topographically the country is divided into four distinct areas: the mountainous North, the fertile Central

Plains, the semi-arid plateau of the Northeast, and the south peninsula distinguished by its many beautiful tropical beaches and offshore Islands.

There are no ethnical conflicts worth mentioning in Thailand. The only low-key internal conflict, in the southernmost provinces of the kingdom, is based on a different religion and not ethnically caused. The southernmost provinces are predominantly Muslim, and in the population there are Malay traits and many speak a Malayan dialect aside from Thai. Although the relationship between these southernmost provinces and Bangkok is sometimes not quite harmonious, there is no serious secessionist or separatist tendencies.

The absence of ethnically based conflicts leads observers to assume that Thailand is ethnically coherent nation. While there is no single large ethnical minority, there are a very large number of small ethnic groups with societies less modernised than the mainstream Thai society. Most of these tribal societies are found in the northern part of the country. (IR.1)

Thailand, nowadays, plays the integral role in Southeast Asia. Thailand is the first Asian country to have signed the Treaty of Amity and Commerce with the United States nearly 170 years ago in 1833. Given our many common interests and values, the Kingdom is one of the United States' closest allies in Asia. Thailand has fought side by side in many wars, such as the Korean and Vietnam Wars, and has been close partners in other fields. Especially, after the September 11 event, the Thai Government has stepped up its intelligence efforts, implemented various security measures, taken legal actions, and promoted public participation and awareness to combat terrorism. Thailand is also working with the United States and other countries in the region to address this and many others of the region's transnational problems,

including the illicit trade in narcotic drugs and human beings. Relations between the United States and Thailand are also close in the economic sphere. The United States is Thailand's second largest trading partner. The United States is also one of the largest investors in Thailand, with many American Fortune 500 companies conducting business in Thailand. All this has also made Thailand known as the Detroit of the East. The Kingdom is also politically stable with an educated and skilled work force. Thailand is endowed with abundant natural resources. Thailand is also strategically located in Southeast Asia, making it the natural gateway for mainland Southeast Asia and South China. (IR.2) The Kingdom of Thailand has been playing a more active role in Asia commensurate with its position.

In Thailand, there is only one official national language spoken by the entire population. Only 0.7 percentage of the population speak English in Thailand. However, English is also a foreign language, not used for any national purpose, but used only for international business purposes.

Nevertheless, Thai language is totally different from English language ranging from writing to speaking. In general, Thai is a tonal language; there are five different tones all together. There are some groups of words that are written exactly the same way but they are pronounced completely different and have different meanings. Conversely, there are some groups of words that are written in a different way but they are pronounced in the same way. There are also a number of words that have similar meaning but are used on various different occasions. Moreover, Thai language is also part of the heritage of historical events in the country. Thus the government tends to keep the language as a standard language that is used through out the country.

1.3 Issues and Aspects of Research Methodology

This study can be seen as an empirical research in the sense that it is based on observable data from the real world, which is Thai language. According to Punch (2004:3) empiricism is a philosophical term to describe the epistemological theory that regards experience as the foundation or source of knowledge. However, one can also view this study as theoretical research in the sense that it mainly deals with theorizing, or reasoning, or by arguing from a theoretical perspective. In order to situate this study in a broad as well as specific contexts of research, it is important to discuss some common concepts and issues in research in general and then to examine how research means in theoretical and applied linguistics, particularly in relation to Thai. Finally the chapter discusses the aim and the research approach of this study in dealing with Thai transitivity.

1.3.1 Method and Approach

In research, the terms ‘method’ and ‘approach’ tend to create some confusion for beginning researchers. They are sometimes used interchangeably as if they mean the same thing. Though these two terms have some common semantic features which are about ‘the way in which the research is viewed and carried out’. The term ‘approach’ implies theoretical or philosophical perspectives which have been adopted. Thus the adopted perspectives influence or dictate the choice of methods for carrying out a research study. For instance, if one adopts the constructivist view of teaching and learning, it is expected that the way in which a research study is carried out is very much constructivism-orientated: describing different discourses of teaching and learning, examining how communication takes place, the relationship between learners and teachers etc. However if one adopts Behaviourism as a research

perspective, it is expected that research data collection, data analysis and result interpretation are heavily behaviourism-orientated.

The term 'method' tends to focus on the procedure and tools which are used in carrying out a study. The common research tools are questionnaire, interview, observation, experiment, and text analysis. Some research studies choose only one tool to use such as questionnaire or interview. Others use a combination of methods or tools to ensure that the collected data are abundant and multi-dimensional. Thus it strengthens the validity of the collected data and data analysis. This leads to the related concepts triangulation and validity.

1.3.2 Triangulation and Validity

Different tools used in data collection give different types of data. Questionnaire, for example, gives quantitative data which are normally classified as independent variables and dependent variables. The former normally includes biographical information of participants such as age, sex, level of education and the latter is treated as dependent variables. Statistics is used to describe the data (descriptive statistics) and to explain the causal relationships between various variables (inferential statistics). However, data collected by the use of questionnaire can be limited in the sense that respondents or participants are not allowed to express their views and meanings through the rigid format of questionnaire. This is why different research tools are used to collect data and they give researchers combined sources for discussing data and to interpret results from different sources. The concept 'triangulation' is widely used in research to address the inadequacy of using a single method or tool.

The concept 'validity' can create confusion in research as it indicates the subjectivity of this concept. Validity means valid and acceptable. Data collection needs to be properly undertaken to obtain valid data. Otherwise assumptions, interpretations and conclusions based on the collected data can become unworthy. A questionnaire with defective structure and confusing linguistic expressions will not yield valid data. Similarly, an interview conducted in an inappropriate manner and in a coercive context will lead to distorted data.

As far as validity is concerned, a study of Thai syntax needs to ensure that the collected Thai sentences for data analysis are 'real' Thai sentences. They are native Thai corpus. Thus only those who are competent in Thai can make judgement about the acceptability and grammaticality of Thai sentences. This study was conducted by a native Thai speaker.

1.3.3 Research Dichotomy: Quantitative and Qualitative

A traditional dichotomy which roughly divides research methodology into two camps is presented in terms of quantitative research and qualitative research. The word 'quantitative' reveals something to do with number, chart, diagram, measurement and quantitative research is easily recognised through the conventional illustration of quantitative information. The most powerful tool of quantitative research is statistics, which is the universal language that quantitative researchers use to communicate with one another. One is always an outsider if one does not know this language. Without it, it is impossible to make judgement about the value of a quantitative research work. Quantitative researchers value the 'objective' world. They are concerned with discovering facts to explain human behaviour and social phenomena. The discovering procedure is fixed and researchers cannot properly carry out a research unless they

have mastered this well-established procedure and the powerful tool of statistics. The value of a quantitative research is often measured by the amount of data that has been collected, the validity of data gathering, and the rigour of analyses.

Two types of research design are often seen in quantitative research: experimental design and correlational, naturalistic designs. The former is used in a research with conditions strictly controlled by the researcher. An experiment is normally conducted in a clinical setting such as a psychology lab. The procedure for obtaining research data is very rigid. Quantitative researchers can also use normal settings such as school and home for experimental design. For example, a research on the influence of children's intensive exposure to children television programs and their vocabulary development. The correlational design involves conditions which are beyond the control of the researcher. A research with correlational design examines the relationship between working class children and their educational achievement. It is obvious that researchers define what characterises 'working class' and 'educational achievement' and investigates the relationship between these two variables but they do not control their subjects in the working class condition for the sake of the study.

The main criticism of quantitative research is that it tends to treat social world as a natural world with a fixed and measurable reality. Its data gathering is so procedurally orientated that it cannot capture the dynamism of meaning in human behaviour and social phenomena. The human world does not always appear 'objectively' for the outsider to discover nor does it behave passively for the social scientist to control. Most importantly, meaning is very much an integral part of the context and a change in the context leads to a change in the meaning. Sociolinguists have mounted vigorous attacks on some traditional social scientists for their insensitivity to social context. For

example, putting a group of working class mothers in a research centre at a university to find out about how they value communicative interaction with their children is to create a new context with new meaning attached. What the mothers say, think, behave in this context is not only different from those existing in their natural context of interaction with their children but can be misleading to the researcher. Qualitative researchers want to be part of the context in order to understand the meaning of the context. They are personally involved in the interaction with people in search for meaning from them, not the meaning determined beforehand by the researcher. Quantitative researchers may argue that they also take 'context' seriously in their research and not all quantitative researchers are confined to clinical setting. However, their notion of "context" is still rather restrictive as Halliday (1991:2) points out:

“We generally take this notion of ‘context’ for granted. The context is some sort of environment; it's what going on around, where language is somehow involved. And if we're talking English we then manipulate this in the typical English way , expanding the word by various derivations: we have the adjective *contextual*, as in *contextual parameters*; then the verb *contextualize*; and since language can be *contextualized*, it can also be *decontextualized*, and then of course be *recontextualized* over again. And each of these, in turn, can become an abstract object, like *recontextualization*.”

Halliday suggests that the notion of 'context' in language include four interacting components: culture, system, situation and text. The implication for research is that the meaning obtained for research should be derived from this kind of context.

The study of Thai transitivity in this research is not a quantitative study as it does not use questionnaire or experimental design. It is a qualitative study which deals

primarily with applying Functional Grammar or Systemic Functional Linguistics to examine Thai syntax in terms of the theoretical concept Transitivity introduced by Halliday (1967, 1974, 1985, 1994).

1.3.4 Ethnography

Ethnographic method which is basically participant observation is attractive to qualitative researchers as it values the dynamic nature of context and participants. But more importantly, it encourages people to 'speak their minds' as they are no longer treated as 'subjects' who are under some control of the researcher. The context is dynamic and it no longer stays fixed or controlled by the researcher. This does not mean that ethnographic researchers are not well prepared and well equipped to carry out their inquiries. They are not non-swimmers thrown into the water and expected to search for things. The task of ethnographic researchers is a challenging one as they have to play skilfully the role of an outsider as well as that of an insider. They should gain some knowledge and skills in:

- Discourse analysis: In linguistics the study of discourse provides some insights and tools for analysing communicative interaction in various discourse types. For example, a study of classroom discourse examines the nature of interaction between participants such as the way teacher and students use language to indicate and express knowledge, roles, attitudes, power in the context of a classroom.

- Subtle data collection: speech and actions are only the surface manifestation of underlying meaning and presupposition. Ethnographic researchers should be competent to observe and record as fully as possible contextual clues, some of which

are obvious while others are hidden or appear irrelevant, in order to make sense of the situation and understand the participants' minds.

- Participant observation: The researcher does not stand aside but takes part in the activities of a group or community. It is therefore easy for the researcher to be 'carried away' due to his personal involvement in the process. Also interviewing in ethnographic research requires sensitivity to the situation. Recently, a research student wanted to interview an old female Asian migrant about her sex life. She did not realise that it was insensitive to conduct an interview with the lady in front of other family members and to use some ready-made questions. It is more appropriate if the interview was conducted in the context of a conversation in which participants are partners equally engaged in the exchange. The genre of the interview should be in narrative as it is suitable to this context.

- Organising qualitative data: Qualitative data include diary, field notes, personal log etc. and they need to be systematically created and persistently used during the fieldwork. Information can be easily lost if the researcher does not skilfully employ some strategies to obtain and maintain qualitative data.

The discussion of qualitative and quantitative methods gives some ideas about the broad distinction between the two research traditions. However, they are not mutually exclusive as some researchers have made use of the strengths of both methods and combined them in their research. As a beginning researcher, one has to find out which method or combination of methods seem to suite one's belief, theoretical orientation and background.

This study of Thai transitivity can be seen as an ethnographic research in the sense that the researcher is also a participant observer. However, it is not strictly the kind of ethnographic research traditionally conducted by sociologists in their fieldwork.. In this study, the selected sentences used in the analysis are those used in real life. As a native speaker of Thai, the researcher's implicit knowledge of Thai language and her metalinguistic awareness are the valid basis for selecting Thai sentences for inclusion in the data analysis.

1.4 Research in Applied Linguistics

The dichotomy 'theoretical and applied linguistics' indicates a link between theory and application. It can be argued that the role of applied linguistics is to apply or test linguistic theories in real context. Theories become useful if they are relevant and applicable to practice. However, there are different ways of explaining the relationship between theoretical linguistics and applied linguistics, particularly from a research point of view. In this part of the discussion, the focus is on research in applied linguistics.

Research in applied linguistics can be classified in terms of subject orientation and discourse orientation. The broad area of applied linguistics covers several applied linguistics branches or fields and research works are grouped under each field or branch. This can be illustrated as follows.

○ *Sociolinguistic research*

Research in sociolinguistics deals with a language and language use in social contexts. As language cannot be divorced from its social and cultural context,

sociolinguistic research take into account social and cultural factors in their research such as human relationship, situation, gender issues, power, social roles etc.

- *Pragmatic research*

Pragmatics is very closely related to sociolinguistics. Its focus is on language and communication in use. Research on pragmatics normally deals with speech acts, language and its social functions, communication strategies etc.

- *Psycholinguistic research*

Research in psycholinguistics may deal with issues overlapping with those in sociolinguistics and pragmatics. For example, research topics on bilingualism, communicative competence, intercultural communication etc. are common themes in various studies across different fields of applied linguistics. The two important features of psycholinguistic research are the wide acceptance of quantitative research methodology and the focus on cognitive aspects of language and communication.

- *Neurolinguistic research*

Neurolinguistics primarily studies the neurological aspects of language function. It is about how human brain handles language. Thus neurolinguistic research is interested in topics and issues such as the critical stage of language development, hemispheric dominance and language functioning, receptive language processing in brain-damaged patients.

- *Educational linguistic research*

Educational linguistics is not an established field like neurolinguistics and sociolinguistics. This does not mean that there are very few research works in educational linguistics. Any research which deals with language and literacy in education can be considered as educational research. This may include TESOL, LOTE, foreign language teaching and learning, and genres in education.

Is this study of Thai transitivity a theoretical research or applied research? It is both theoretical and applied. It is theoretical in the sense that it examines the nature of a theoretical concept transitivity introduced by Halliday. It is also an applied research as the study applies theory of Functional Grammar in the analysis of Thai sentences. Though the study does not directly deal with aspects and issues in sociolinguistics, neurolinguistics, pragmatics and educational linguistics, an understanding of Thai sentence structure provides useful insights into one of the central themes of Thai grammar and this could be used as a basis for exploring social and neurolinguistic aspects of Thai.

1.5 Research in Theoretical Linguistics and its Impact on Thai Linguistics

Theoretical linguistics deals with language as a code or a system. When language is viewed as a system, linguists dissect this system into different components such as phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and discourse.

Research in theoretical linguistics strongly reflects the internal compositions of a linguistic system. For example, a study on English phonology may describe the phonetic features of English vowels and consonants from different perspectives such as articulatory phonetics, acoustic phonetics, or auditory phonetics. Research with an interest in Indonesian morphology may examine how plural is formed; and those

who are interested in Thai syntax may conduct research on topics on active/passive structure and embedded sentences.

Apart from examining research in theoretical linguistics from the internal structure perspective, linguists tend to develop different theories or theoretical concepts to describe and explain some linguistic phenomena. For example, Chomsky developed Generative Transformation Grammar (or with other names such as Generative Theory, Transformation Grammar, Transformation Generative Grammar) in early 1960s. His theory was very influential at the time of its inception in theoretical linguistics. Numerous doctoral theses were written under the influence of Chomsky's theory.

Some linguistic theories are short-lived and their impacts are minimal or peripheral. Others have been transformed or incorporated into a different theory. For example, Case Theory developed by Fillmore has been incorporated into Halliday's Systemic Functional Grammar or Theory. The concept of case is useful for this research on transitivity as cases are the key elements of transitivity.

Systemic Functional Linguistics or Functional Grammar is currently very popular, particularly in Australia, England and the USA. It has its major conferences in many parts of the world. The International Systemic Functional Linguistics Association has its own publications and numerous doctoral theses have been written; particularly on the use of Functional Grammar to describe and explain linguistic structures of languages other than English. However, it seems that Functional Grammar is still an unknown theory to many Thai researchers and linguists.

It has been noted that Thai linguistics and applied linguistics to some extent reflect the development and implementation of theoretical linguistics in the Western world. For instance, the following studies indicate the influence of Western linguistic theories in Thai linguistics. Kanchanawan (1978) undertook his doctoral research on expression for time in the Thai verb and its application to Thai-English machine translation. Boonyatispark (1983) undertook his doctoral research at the University of London on the syntactic and semantic properties of 'aspect' in Thai. Sareechareonsatit (1984) studied conjunct verbs and verbs-in-series in Thai. It was a doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign.

1.6 Aim and Significance of This Study

As stated at the beginning of this chapter, the two concepts 'research' and 'methodology' are so interrelated that it is incomplete when one discusses research without any reference to methodology. The term 'research' itself is controversial as it could mean different things to different researchers. The difference of interpretations of the term 'research' is primarily due to the significance one assigns to a certain method employed in a research.

As briefly stated earlier, this study of Thai transitivity can be viewed both as applied linguistics research and theoretical linguistics research. It is applied linguistics research in the sense that it does not develop any theoretical concepts or linguistic models as seen in the works of well-known linguists such as Halliday, Chomsky, and Fillmore. There are very few linguists who have reached this stage. Thus, this study can be viewed as applied linguistics research as it attempts to apply a linguistic theory, which is Systemic Functional Grammar, to the analysis of Thai. It would be a

huge research project to include all aspects of Systemic Functional Grammar in this thesis. The focus of this study is on the theoretical concept transitivity.

This study is also viewed as theoretical linguistics research as it is a linguistic analysis of Thai in terms of transitivity. Research as such has been carried out in linguistics for many years. The Summer Institute of Linguistics has been known for conducting research in this tradition. Most of research works conducted by Australian linguists, predominantly at Monash, La Trobe University, University of Sydney and the Australian National University, belong to theoretical linguistics research. For example, Blake (1987, 1990, 1994) conducted research works on Aboriginal languages by applying Fillmore's theoretical concept 'case' to the analysis of the sentence structure of Aboriginal languages. Similarly Dixon (2002) carried out a number of research works, applying semantics-based grammar to the analysis of the Aboriginal languages Dyirbal and Yidiny in Australia.

As discussed, the aim of this study is to examine comprehensively Thai sentence structure from the Functional Grammar perspective. The focus of this study is the application of the theoretical concept transitivity on the analysis of Thai sentence structure.

There are several important reasons why this research uses Systemic Functional Linguistics or Functional Grammar as a theoretical model for studying Thai, and why it focuses on transitivity as a theoretical framework to explore Thai sentence structure.

Firstly since the decline of Chomsky's Generative Transformation Grammar (GTG), research in linguistics has reached a stage where different competing models have

emerged to fill the theoretical gaps left behind after the long domination of Chomskyan linguistics. Among the competing models or theories, Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) has emerged as the most influential alternative to GTG. Halliday has been the key figure of SFL since 1970s. His contribution to linguistic theory in general and SFL in particular has been acknowledged in numerous publications in linguistics.

Secondly, linguists from non-English speaking countries, with a background in SFL have used Functional Grammar as a theoretical basis on which they carry out research on their mother tongues. Most of them were originally research students at universities with a strong emphasis on SFL. For instance, Fang (1989) carried out research on 'Theme and Rheme in Chinese'. Hua (1986) studied 'circumstantial elements in Chinese'. Caffarel (1995) studied 'approaching the French clause as a move in dialogue: interpersonal organisation'. A comprehensive study of Thai linguistics was conducted by Chanawangsa (1987) at Georgetown University, who applied Halliday's theory to examine cohesion in Thai. SFL has received the attention of linguistic research in several Asian countries but to Thai linguistics, SFL is still an unknown territory for many Thai linguists. Thai applied linguists and language teachers are in need of new ideas and pedagogical implications and directions for research and teaching. It is hoped that this study is a small contribution to current Thai linguistics.

Thirdly, it can be argued that Transitivity is one of the most essential theoretical constructs of Halliday's theory. He introduced the concept transitivity in one of his early publications in 1960s. In 1967, his article 'Transitivity and Theme in English' was published in *The Journal of Linguistics*. It has been gradually developed and well

incorporated in his Functional Grammar theory. The study of Thai sentence structure in terms of transitivity will provide useful insights into Thai linguistics in general and Thai syntax in particular.

Finally, in applied linguistics contrastive studies have become popular in research as well as language teaching pedagogy. Traditionally, contrastive analysis tends to be based on structural linguistics with a focus on form but not meaning and function. Though this study is not a contrastive analysis of Thai and English, it is obvious that English is implicitly and explicitly referred to in this study when Thai transitivity is examined. This study does not contribute to the knowledge of how a linguistic theory 'works' in different languages. Further research on contrastive analysis of transitivity in Thai and other languages such as English, French, Japanese, and Vietnamese will provide interesting insights into the theory of universal grammar. Schachter (1988), for example, conducted a research on the relationship between universal grammar and child language development. Albert examines universal grammar in terms of sub-systems and basic principles.

There are other universal grammar discoveries..... They fall into subsystems called such things as 'X-bar theory', 'Case theory', 'Theta-theory', and 'Government theory', and 'Binding theory'. Each gives basic principles about how words can be combined to form expressions with specific structure and meaning, and each has flexible options that may be adopted or ignored by particular languages.(IR.3)

1.7 Text Analysis in this study

In the previous discussion about research methodology, different research methods were discussed namely quantitative and qualitative methods. The discussion also took

into consideration related issues such as validity, triangulation, and ethnography. Such a discussion is useful as those issues are revisited when the discussion moves on to the methodological aspects of this study.

This study can be viewed as a qualitative study as it does not include tools for collecting data such as experiment, survey, and test. However, different from some traditional empirical research methods dealing with qualitative data, this study is text-based. In other words, linguistic texts are the primary unit for analysis. Titscher et al (2003:20) makes the following statement about “What is a text?”

This question has occupied text linguistics and discourse analysis since their beginning although the two different scientific approaches are currently converging more and more. Both text and discourse are restricted, in everyday parlance, to written texts on the one hand and spoken (discourse) on the other, although this is contested to some extent in the scholarly literature.

According to Titscher et al, syntax is used to support the selection of unit analysis like sentence constituents (2003:24). In linguistics, sentence has been chosen as the primary unit for analysis. Chomsky’s Generative Transformational Grammar treats sentence as primary and his whole theory about human language deals with sentence structure. Though Halliday extends the concept of text beyond sentence level, his analysis of transitivity is still based on sentence as a unit. This is also the approach employed in this study to examine Chapter I has adopted this approach in Thai as transitivity is about sentence structure and the text unit is a sentence unit. (Halliday 1990a, 11) gives the reason why sentence is treated as a primary unit in his theory.

- There is no fixed limit to the grammar, in terms of Rank; but traditionally grammar stops at the sentence (including the clause complex).
- Below the sentence, the typical relationship is a constructional one, of parts into wholes.
- The sentence constitutes a significant border post, which is why writing systems are sensitive to it and mark it off.
- Sentence and word are the two grammar units that are recognised in our folk linguistics. Thus, sentence and word are not so sharply set off from one another. Both are units in the grammar.

Analysis of English sentences in research is normally undertaken by native speakers of English. It is different from a study of phonology which may not require a good command of the language under investigation. Research on syntax and semantics requires the researcher to have language competence of a native speaker. Halliday is a native speaker of English; therefore the sentence samples used in his analysis of English transitivity are his own.

In this study of Thai transitivity, the researcher is a native speaker of Thai. Thus, the sentence samples used for analysis in this study is typical of Thai, not being affected by non-native language interference. The selection of language samples used in this study is based on the researcher's Metalinguistic analysis of Thai as a native language. Metalinguistic awareness is the basis on which linguists traditionally use to justify the use of linguistic samples of their native tongues as objects of linguistic inquiry and analysis. Metalinguistic awareness is the process of thinking about and reflecting on the nature and functions of language (Pratt & Grieve, 1984).

However, it is worth pointing out that like English, Thai has different dialects and sociolects. The difference is prominent in spoken language. Thai spoken in the North can be slightly different in the south of Thailand. However, from the written language point of view, standard Thai is the common bond of Thai people. Therefore the samples used in this analysis of Thai transitivity are chosen from standard Thai. It is important that data are seen as valid. Thus the researcher will consult other native speakers of Thai to ensure that the samples are not heavily orientated towards a particular dialect or sociolect.

What is the process of the analysis in this study?

This study accepts Halliday's treatment of sentence as a key grammatical unit. Thus Thai sentence structure is the key object of analysis of Thai transitivity. The research consists of the following stages:

- Examining the theoretical concept transitivity.
- Identifying different process types in Functional Grammar.
- Examine what these processes are in Thai.
- Identifying any problems in applying those processes in the analysis of Thai transitivity.

1.8 Symbols and Glosses

In the explanatory text, names of systems are capitalised; e.g., MOOD for the system MOOD, TRANSITIVITY for the system of TRANSITIVITY. The word Systemic Functional Grammar is also capitalised only on the first letter through out this thesis.

The presentation of examples is organised. The first line provides the Thai wording and the second line gives the phonetics of the Thai words on the first line. The third gives inter-glosses; the fourth provides the configuration of functions that the clause has and the fifth represents an idiomatic translation in English.

1.9 Summary

In discussing the relationship between research aim, context, and issues, Andrews (2003:15) states that it is important to consider the nexus of issues in an introductory chapter. In this way, it provides a clear background which helps readers and the research to move from a broad discourse to the context in which the study is conducted. Chapter I has adopted this approach by initially examining issues and aspects of research methodology and gradually introducing the pathway which leads to this research. The next chapter will discuss aspects of Thai and the following chapters will focus the discussion from linguistic theories to the central task of this research: to investigate Thai transitivity.

CHAPTER II

An Overview of Thai Language

2.1 The Historical Background of Thai Language

Thai language, also called Siamese or Central Thai, is the standard spoken and literary language in Thailand. Even though, there are also other three main dialects in Thailand, Thai standard still serves as the official national language or standard language through out the country. It is the language taught and used in the schools, used by the media and used for all government affairs. According to the 1980 census, 47 million people live in Thailand. And estimated 80 percent of this total or 37,600,000 people speak Thai. (IR.4)

Based upon somewhat scanty data Thai or Siamese or central Thai is an ancient Indian language that belongs to the Tai language family of South East Asia, a subgroup of the Kadai or Kam-Tai family. Tai developed in the 1st century AD somewhere in the Jiangxi River valley. Many believe that Tai and its many branches belong to the Sino-Tibetan family. Evidence, however, shows that Tai language indeed does not come from the Sino-Tibetan family. There are similarities in the sound (phonetic) suprasegmental systems (especially tone) but this is no longer seen as being a major aspect. Much is the same as Chinese but there is too much that differs for it to be the same family. Tai and its many branches are now believed to belong to the Austronesian group. The Tai were constantly driven southwards by the Chinese until they were spread all over the northern part of Southeast Asia. They are

linked to many but their main groups are the Thai in Thailand, the Shan in Myanmar, the Lao in Laos, the Tai in Vietnam and China, the Dai in Yunnan, the Buyi in Guizhou, and the Zhuang in Kwangsi's Zhuang Autonomous Region. This hypothesis still remains controversial. (IR.4)

Thai, like Lao, Vietnamese and Chinese is a tonal language. Some studies have focussed on tones in Thai; for example 'Tones in Thai: an Autosegmental View' (Hoonchamlong 1990). 'An Experiment in Sound Discrimination in English and Thai.' (Melamed, 1962)., and 'A Thai Tone Recognition System Based on Phonemic Distinctive Features' (Thubthong 1995). There is also a strong view that Thai language is similar to the Chinese language. As was pointed out by the renowned Thai linguist and writer Phya Anuman Rajadhon in his paper "The Nature and Development of the Thai Language", published 1961 by the Fine Arts Department of the Thai government, there actually are hundreds of similar words in Thai and Chinese. Many of these words may be cultural borrowings, mostly by the Thais, after long and continual contact with the Chinese. On the other hand, there are certain classes of words which obviously were derived from common sources in ancient times. And more importantly, beyond the similarities of single words, the spoken Thai and spoken Chinese language are structured much the same way (though when written, the two languages are completely different).

Thai has been considered as a tonal language since Sukhothai, the first major kingdom of Thailand, in the mid-thirteen century (Thubthong, 1995; Hoonchamlong, 1990). Current theories state that the language spoken in Sukhothai resembled Proto-Tai in

tonal structure. This early system consisted of three tones on syllables ending in a long vowel, a semi-vowel or a nasal (*kham pen* 'live syllable' in traditional Thai grammatical terms). On syllables ending in p, t, k or in a glottal stop after a short vowel a fourth tone existed, although these syllables showed no tonal differentiation at all (*kham taay* 'dead syllable' in traditional Thai grammatical terms). While the presence of some type of suprasegmental contrasts is considered conclusive at this early stage of the language, the phonetic nature of these contrasts still remains a matter of speculation. This system prevailed at the time of creation of the writing system by King Ramkhamhaeng (1275-1317) in the latter part of the thirteenth century.

In 1350 the centre of power shifted from Sukhothai to Ayutthaya, the second kingdom of Thailand. There were some different sound changes. The first of the changes, the sound change known as the tonal split, affected all of the languages in the Tai family. Because of the splits, sound systems with three contrasting tones, for example, became systems typically with six tones, two different tones from each of the three earlier tones. In some dialects, however, special characteristics of the dialect created more or fewer tones. Thai, for example, now has five tones. In brief, these shifts resulted when the phonetic nature of the initial consonant of each syllable conditioned an allophonic pitch difference. Subsequent changes in the initial consonant, then, caused these allophonic non - contrastive pitches to become contrastive unit. Linguists frequently set a date as early as AD1000 for these sound changes. For the Thai spoken in Ayutthaya, however, the splits seem to have occurred much later. (IR.5)

In Ayutthaya era (1350-1767), there were a large numbers of Sanskrit and Pali words were borrowed. These Indic loanwords comprise a large portion of the technical vocabularies for science, government, education, religion and literature. Gedney (1947:1) states that these loanwords are as common in spoken Thai as Latin and Greek forms are in spoken English. Sanskrit and, to a much lesser extent, Pali assume the same cultural importance for Thai as Latin does for English. Many of these loanwords exist in both short and long forms. The shorter form represents the usual Thai pronunciation is ‘รัฐ’ *rat* ‘state’, ‘เทพ’ *thep* ‘god’. The longer alternant usually, but not always, functions as a combining form: ‘รัฐบาล’ *ratthabaan* ‘government’ (latter constituent *baan* ‘protector, protection’); ‘เทพบุตร’ *thepphabut* ‘angel’ (latter constituent *but* ‘son’). Most of these compounds seem to have been formed in modern Thai since they do not appear in either Sanskrit or Pali. However, Sanskrit and Pali are at the opposite pole from the Thai language. The former is a grammatically inflectional language where words are bound by cases and other endings, while the latter is an analytic language with words that are independent and free in their grammatical form.

Therefore, words from Sanskrit, the classical Indian language, and Pali, the language of Buddhism, borrowed by Thai are no longer subject to the original rules of inflections; words of Sanskrit and Pali with many syllables were clipped and reduced, if possible. Likewise, Sanskrit and Pali sounds were changed to conform to the Thai phonetic system. Phya Anuman Rajadhon (1990) states: “At the present time an intelligent Thai, when reading Khmer writing in Thai transliteration, will be able to identify easily many words as identical with his own; not to speak of words drawn from Sanskrit and Pali from which the two languages have borrowed abundantly. It is

in speaking only that the two languages are mutually unintelligible because of different phonetic systems.”

Furthermore, there were also the Mon-Khmer languages which the language system and words were borrowed, for example. the use of prefixes and infixes as well as initial consonantal clusters in words. This is because the Thais of Thailand have mixed freely with the people of the Mon-Khmer linguistic group who migrated into the Indo - Chinese peninsula. Through the close contact of the Thais with these peoples, first with the Mon of lower Burma, and second with the Khmer, the ancestors of the Cambodians, the Thais in Thailand have developed from a blending, in the course of time making certain racial and cultural traits peculiarly their own. The group was known thereafter and until about World War II as the Siamese (IR.6). After that The Thai language changed much through the influence of the Mon-Khmer. Progressively, Mon and Khmer words were adopted into the Thai language. For the language system such as the use of prefixes and infixes can be found in the Thai language. Take this as an example, in Thai, the word ‘ตรวจ’ ‘truat’ means examine, inspect. With the sound ‘am’ infixed into it, it becomes ‘ตำรวจ’ ‘tamruat’ and means police, guard. ‘พัก’ ‘Pak’ alone means rest; with n as an infix it becomes ‘พนัก’ ‘pnak’ meaning a support, for example for a chair. With am as an infix it becomes ‘พนัก’ ‘pamnak’ meaning a support in time of distress or difficulty. (IR.7)

Furthermore, the Malayo-Javanese language has also played an important part in the development of words in the Thai language. The borrowings were not only direct. Through the medium of the Malayo-Javanese language, Thai has received a fairly large number of foreign words of Sematic and later even of Portuguese origin.

In a random survey of the Malay language, Phya Anuman Rajadhon (1990) found a large number of Malay words common to Thai and other language groups of Thailand's neighbours. No doubt most of these words are due to cultural borrowings. In the 18th century A.D. the well-known Japanese Panji Cycle Tales were introduced into the Thai language and they became some of the most popular romances in Thai literature. Through these stories a fairly large number of Japanese words were introduced into the Thai language. These words are understood comparatively well by the Thai people, though most are of a literary nature.

Last but not least, English language has played an important part of the development of the current Thai language. Thais have been in contact with westerners since The Rattanakosin Period (1782-Present A.D.) There is explicit evidence that King Nang Klao, Rama III (1824-1851) reopened relations with western nations and developed trade with China. King Mongkut, Rama IV, (1851-1868) concluded treaties with European countries, avoided colonialization and established modern Thailand. His majesty the King has also made many social and economic reforms in Thailand during his reign. (IR.6) Since then Though there have been comparatively few English words that can be found in Thai, the influence of English and American sentence forms and idioms of both spoken and written Thai have been used increasingly by the younger generation.

2.2 Research on Thai Grammar

Thai researchers have been studied Thai grammar using the same techniques others researchers have used with English grammar. Thai grammar theory is briefly explained below:

2.2.1 Thai Traditional Grammar

2.2.2 Thai Structural Grammar

2.2.3 Thai Transformation Grammar

2.2.1 Thai Traditional Grammar

Grammar has been taught in Europe since the 17th Century. Later it was taught in the US. Nevertheless, in Thailand, grammar has been taught for the first time since Pnya Ouprakit Silpasarn corrected and added some important things to the book called “Tumrawaiyakorn Thai” or “Thai grammar book” this book was based on descriptive grammar rather than prescriptive grammar. It was like an English traditional grammar book because it has been taught about the parts of speech and syntax. Firstly, Pnya Ouprakit Silpasarn (Silpasarn, 2522) divided words into 7 groups according to the meaning of the words. For example;

1. Noun: dog ‘หมา’, school ‘โรงเรียน’, desk ‘โต๊ะ’, the fact ‘ความจริง’ and happiness ‘ความสุข’
2. Pronoun: I ‘ฉัน’, you ‘คุณ’, we ‘พวกเรา’
3. Verb: sleep ‘นอน’, believe ‘เชื่อ’ and feel ‘รู้สึก’

4. Adverb: slowly ‘อย่างช้า’, fast ‘อย่างรวดเร็ว’
5. Preposition: before ‘ก่อน’, with ‘กับ’ and on ‘บน’
6. Conjunction: but ‘แต่’, so ‘ดังนั้น’ and because ‘เพราะ’
7. Interjection: my goodness and oh dear. ‘ว้าย’ and ‘อัย’

This was different from the English traditional grammar firstly because it was divided into 8 groups. An adjective group has been added these are; for example, tall ‘สูง’ and fat ‘อ้วน’.

Secondly, Prya Ouprakit Silpasarn (2522) pointed out that when the words are connected together, they will become “a sentence”. According to Prya Ouprakit Silpasarn (2522), “a sentence” is divided into a two parts, the first part is the subject, and the second part is finite and the complement. For example, “แดงกินข้าว” “แดง” is subject and “กินข้าว” is the predicator. If the sentence is not completed, it is called ‘a phrase’. This type of grammar is taught in schools, teachers must correct every single sentence to ensure it is grammatically correct. Currently, Thai teachers still use this type of grammar to teach syntax, and it is still the best method available to teach students to use corrected Thai language when writing. Although, other types of grammar have been introduced, Thai teachers still start teaching Thai grammar using this traditional technique.

2.2.2 Thai Structural Grammar

This type of grammar is different from the traditional grammar method. Structural grammar is concerned with syntactic meaning and morphology semantic meaning.

However, more attention is paid to the syntactic patterns rather than the semantic meaning.

There are three methods to analyse structural grammar:

1. Test frames

Teachers who teach grammar to students by using test frames prepare sentences such as:

- a) _____ หักราะ
- b) แดงขี้ _____

These are for students to insert words according to the corrected part of speech that is being taught. Normally, the native speakers of the language will perfectly be able to complete the test frames because it is natural for them. Usually, they study parts of speech and complete the test frames later. Thai teachers use test frames to teach students about part of speech in both Thai and English language.

2. Immediate constitutes

Words are the basic unit of syntactic structure. There are a set of procedures by means of which words can be classified into classes such as 'nouns', 'verbs', adjectives, 'adverbs', 'pronouns' and 'conjunctions'. The concept of constituent structure is based on the observation that units which occur next to each other tend to belong together. Consider the following sentence:

“The beautiful woman who went camping near our house yesterday has gone home.”

Firstly, this sentence can be divided as follows:

/The beautiful woman / who went camping near our house yesterday has gone home/

Secondly, we can group the words together in pairs as follows:

- 1) the beautiful and woman
- 2) went and camping
- 3) our and house
- 4) has and gone

These are considered as functional constituents. One test of the correctness of the analysis is substitution. Each of these immediately dominates two constituents, and these two constituents are immediate constituents of a construction represented by the immediately dominating node.

Thirdly, they can be separated as follows:

The/ beautiful/ woman /who/ went/ camping/ near/ our/ house/ yesterday/ has /gone/
home.

Lastly, we can put substitute other words into sentence like the test frames to check the part of speech of each word.

“The beautiful ____ who ____ near our _____ yesterday has gone home”

We can put “girls” in the first blank because it needs a noun; we can insert the verb “came” in the second place since it needs verb; and we can put a noun such as “school” or, “playground” in the third place as a noun is required.

3. Sentence formulas

There are formulas in English grammar and Thai grammar like there are formulas in geometry and chemistry. Understanding the structure of sentences enhances one's ability to understand grammar. There are four formulas to make sentences.

- 1) Noun/ Pronoun + Verb : A dog + runs
- 2) Noun/ Pronoun + Verb + Adjective: She + is + beautiful
- 3) Noun/ Pronoun + Verb + Noun/ Pronoun: I + like+ pets
- 4) Noun/ Pronoun + Verb + Noun/Pronoun + Noun/pronoun: I + give +
him + money

However, from all of the above, the test frame has been seen to be the most useful tool for teaching Thai grammar in schools. In test frames the grammar is used to indicate the part of speech of each word, and then the words are grouped to make sentences according to the formulas of the language. Thai teachers still use this kind grammar to teach both Thai and English language for students.

2.2.3 Thai Transformation Grammar

According to Noam Chomsky (1957) who has written about Grammar in Syntactic Structures, Perfect Grammar should be correct grammar and can explain things in the past and predict thing in the future. Chomsky (1957) has also discussed the 'competence' and 'performance' of language users. Language users must be able to use syntactic rules to make grammatically sentence. They should know the ambiguous and the paraphrase of the sentence to indicate deep structure and surface structure.

In other words, the linguists always comment on the linguistic competence of the language users as they certainly have knowledge of phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics and then they must use these to make the qualified sentences according to syntactic rules. The qualifications of language users should be as follows:

- 1) They always make grammatical sentences and they must know the word order of the language and the part of speech in use.
- 2) They know immediately when they hear an ungrammatical sentence.
- 3) They will be able to indicate which sentence is ambiguous eg. "Jim and Joe or Mary must go back home tomorrow"
- 4) They are able to explain the meaning of paraphrased sentences such as "Joe gave a flower to Mary" and "Mary was given a flower by Joe"
- 5) They can indicate the grammatical relations in the sentences.
- 6) They are able to make infinite sentences and make recursions.

Transformation grammar which linguists also consider concerns is hierarchical structure and the analysis of constituent structure which is an adaptation of the traditional method of analysing a sentence into its major components and subdividing the constituents until every morpheme is accounted for. The linguistic competences of the native speakers are able to group each constituent to be into phrases and the sentences according to syntactic category of each word. Then the language users must be able to fit each word into the test frames as has been explained in the preceding section.

Thai grammar linguists also use the Transformation method to make syntactic rules which can be used to make grammatical sentences. They also believe in the linguistic competence and the linguistic performance of the native speakers and that Thai students should be able to make grammatical sentences according to the rules. For example, Thai students must know that Thai sentences are modelled as follows S (sentence) > NP (noun phrase) + VP (verb phrase). The NP is NP > N (+adj) (Cl + Det) and VP is VP > V (+NP) (+Adv). However, Generative linguists do not pay as much attention to the individual parts of speech as the two other grammar linguists that have been discussed in the preceding section. Thai linguists also use Case grammar to analyse the Generative grammar and help students understand how the grammar works. They still analyse the surface structure and the deep structure. There are a few Thai linguists who have studied Case grammar. For example, Kanjana Sinthawanon has studied about this kind of grammar in the thesis 'The Verbs in Modern Thai' (1974). Pongsri Lekawattana also studied the case grammar in the thesis 'Verb Phrases in Thai: A study in Deep Case Relations'. The reason that Thai researchers have studied Case grammar is that Case grammar can indicate grammar

problems that occur when grammar is taught. However, the number of cases is different in each study. There are also new cases in the studies. Therefore, cases are not the universal in language. Linguists have found that there are still number of problems with grammar method, linguists still work on other types of grammar in order to ensure that the best method of teaching is applied to the language. Thai linguists still used need to use lists of grammar when they explain and teach language to Thai students. This study will further explain the Functional Grammar on Thai TRANSITIVITY as another option that Thai teachers can use to teach Thai language to their students.

2.3 The Current Thai Language

Besides central Thai, there are three other main Tai languages spoken in Thailand: Southern Thai, Northern Thai, and Laotian, called North Eastern Thai or E-san in Thailand. There are also local varieties of these languages and other related Tai languages spoken by minorities such as the Thai Dam. These Tai dialects differ from each other mainly by vocabulary and are not mutually intelligible. It would take a person from Bangkok, who speaks Thai standard as a mother tongue, some time to be able to speak and understand Northern Thai or another member of the Tai language family. (IR.6) Moreover, In Thai there is a conventionalized set of words called 'Rachasap' or court language. Certain basic notions such as eat, walk, sit, sleep, head, hand, hair and feet, have special words appropriate to the royal family. These words are mostly Khmer, Sanskrit and Pali in origin. The rest, a fair number, are Thai words which have been coined so as to differentiate them from the ordinary words. Khmer

words introduced into the Thai court language long ago may still be common words of the Khmer language currently used.

The sound system of Thai language, in brief, is tonal which means that each word has pitch characteristics that must be spoken properly in order to be understood. There are 5 tones: mid, low, high, rising, and falling. The final tone of the syllable is determined by the tone mark linked with the type of syllable as determined by the vowel and consonant characters present. The writing system is alphabetic. There are 44 consonants as shown below:

Phonetics	Letter	Phonetics	Letter	Phonetics	Letter	Phonetics	Letter
g	ก	dt	ฏ	bp	ป	leu	ภ
k	ข	t	ฐ	p	ผ	leu	ภ
k	ค	t	ฑ	f	ฝ	w	ว
k	ฆ	t	ฒ	p	พ	s	ศ
ng	ง	n	ณ	f	ฟ	s	ษ
j	จ	d	ด	p	ภ	s	ส
ch	ฉ	dt	ต	m	ม	h	ห
ch	ช	t	ถ	y	ย	l	ฬ
s	ซ	t	ท	r	ร	-	อ
ch	ฌ	t	ธ	reu	ฤ	h	ฮ
y	ญ	n	น	reu	ฌ	k	ค
d	ฎ	b	บ	l	ล		

Table 2.3.1 The Thai alphabet

However there are only 21 sounds in Thai language. Some of them are not the same sound as English language. Many of the Thai consonants are very easy to pronounce,

as there are exact or almost exact equivalents in English. They are pronounced as follows:

<i>b</i>	As in back .
<i>bp</i>	This is a sound halfway between <i>b</i> and <i>p</i> . If you have trouble saying it, pronouncing it as either <i>b</i> or <i>p</i> will often be understood.
<i>ch</i>	As in chair .
<i>d</i>	As in down .
<i>dt</i>	This is a sound halfway between <i>d</i> and <i>t</i> . Again, saying it either as <i>d</i> or <i>t</i> will often be understood.
<i>f</i>	As in food .
<i>g</i>	As in gold .
<i>h</i>	As in holiday .
<i>j</i>	As in just .
<i>k</i>	As in kill .
<i>l</i>	As in lemon .
<i>m</i>	As in man .
<i>n</i>	As in never .
<i>ng</i>	As in sing .
<i>p</i>	As in pine .
<i>r</i>	As in red .
<i>s</i>	As in seat .
<i>t</i>	As in take .
<i>w</i>	As in window .
<i>y</i>	As in yes .

Table 2.3.2 Thai sounds

There are 15 basic vowels structures and five Diphthongises: ia, üa, ua, au, ai

	Front	mid	back	
			Round	Non-round
High	i / ii		u / uu	ü/üü
mid	e / ee	uh	o / oo	
low	æ / ææ		oh	a / aa

Table 2.3.3 Basic vowel

In writing they are placed horizontally from left to right with no spaces to form syllables words and sentences. Vowels are written above, below, before, or after the consonant they modify, although the consonant sound is always heard first when the syllable or word is spoken. The arrangement of words in a sentence fundamentally is subject-action-object, with qualifying words, adjectives and adverbs following each appropriate word. As stated by Phya Anuman Rajadhon (1990) that there is no hard and fast rule relating to parts of speech in the actual sense of the word. A word may be a noun, an adjective, a verb or an adverb only in relation to other words in a phrase or a sentence. The most important thing in Thai language is word order. For the grammar in Thai language, Cornelius B. Bradley stated in the book in Some Features of the Siamese Speech and Writing, published in 1923, that Thai “words are symbols of concept, being wholly devoid of inflectional apparatus to express and define their relations with other words in the sentence. They are; therefore, free to function in any syntactical relation not incompatible with their essential meaning”. (IR.7) Indeed, the Thai language has one of the simplest grammar of all languages, and many writers have claimed there is no grammar at all. However, in the judgement of Phya Anuman Rajadhon, Thai has in the course of its historical and cultural development suffered at

the hands of Thai grammarians who have introduced exotic rules and restrictions based on English, Sanskrit or Pali grammar.

This study is based on standardised written Thai and on Thai that is spoken in the central region, particularly in Bangkok and the area nearby. This is because central Thai is the standard language and the official language that is widely used and accepted in the country.

2.4 Thai grammar

Thai Grammar has attracted the attention of linguists. There are also a number of Thai grammar studies which have been conducted in linguistic research; for example, 'The Use of Numeral Classifiers in Thai' and 'Beginning Thai: Introductory Lessons in the Pronunciation and Grammar of the Thai Language' by Haas (1942), 'Thai Reference Grammar.' by Noss (1964), 'Relative Clauses in Thai.' By Ekniyom (1971), 'Aspects of Meaning in Thai Nominals: a Study in Structural Semantics.' by Gething (1972), 'Transitive Verbs in Thai.' by Kullavanijaya (1974), 'The Role of Accent in Thai Grammar.' by Hiranburana (1982), 'A Study of Aspect in Thai.' by Boonyapatipark, (1983), and 'Thai Syntax and "National Grammar".' by Diller (1988).

To give a brief introduction to Thai grammar, the following section gives a brief description of Thai grammar on the following aspects.

- Sentence Structure
- Thai pronouns

- Articles and plurals
- Adjectives
- Adverbs
- Tenses
- Wh-questions
- Passive particles

2.4.1 Sentence Structure

Text in Thai language is totally different from the text in English. Words are written after each other. There is no space, comma and full stop between words. However, spaces sometimes occur in text when there is a natural pause in a sentence as in the example below:

ไหมไทยเป็นอุตสาหกรรมในครัวเรือนตั้งแต่ดั้งเดิมซึ่งเป็นอาชีพของคนไทยในภาคอีสาน
 มาเป็นเวลานานแล้ว
 สมัยนั้นการทอผ้าเป็นงานฝีมือพื้นบ้านที่สืบทอดกันมาเป็นประเพณีเพื่อเป็นการสืบทอด
 รอยเท้าของบรรพบุรุษของชนถิ่นนี้ สตรีชาวอีสานเองก็เคยเลี้ยงไหม
 ปั่นและย้อมด้วยวิธีการที่สืบทอดมาเพื่อใช้สอยกันในครอบครัว
 และบางครั้งก็นำไปขายในท้องตลาด

“Thai silk is an ancient home industry. It was for a long time an occupation of people in the northeast of Thailand, where cloth weaving is a traditional folk craft. To follow the footsteps of their ancestors, north eastern women used to

rear their own silkworms, spun and dyed the yarn using the primitive methods for their family needs and sometimes for sale in the markets.”

(Quoted from Essay on Thailand, Jadjaidee, 2002: 102)

Nevertheless, the sentence structure of Thai language is similar to English:

Subject^Verb^Object

แดง	เตะ	ดำ
deang	tae	dam
Deang	kick	Dam
Subject	Verb	Object

(Deang kicks Dam.)

2.4.2 Thai pronoun

Thai pronouns are shown in Figure 2.4.2-1

Personal Pronouns

I / me	‘ฉัน’: to friends and general people or ‘ผม’ for male / ‘ดิฉัน’ for female to friends and polite people.
You	‘คุณ’: to friends and polite people or ‘ท่าน’ : to seniors people.
We	‘เรา’
He	‘เขา’
She	‘เธอ’

They / Them	‘พวกเขา’
It	‘มัน’: for animals and objects

Figure 2.4.2-1 Personal pronouns

Possessive Pronouns

My / Mine	ของฉัน or ของผม for male / ของดิฉัน for female.
Your	ของคุณ or ของท่าน
His / Him	ของเขา
Her	ของเธอ
Ours	ของพวกเรา
Theirs	ของพวกเขา
Its	ของมัน

Figure 2.4.2-2 Possessive pronouns

2.4.3 Articles and Plurals

There are neither articles nor plurals in Thai language. The texts themselves give sufficient information as to the quantity and classifiers for example:

แดง	มี	หมา	หนึ่งตัว
deang	mee	ma	nung tua
Deang	has	dog	one
Subject	Verb	Noun	Classifier

Deang has a dog.

แดง	มี	ลูก	สองคน
deang	mee	luk	song khon
Deang	has	kids	two kids
Subject	Verb	Noun	Classifier

Deang has two kids.

2.4.4 Adjectives

In Thai, adjectives always come after the noun that they describe. Thus, the sentence structure is Subject^ Verb^ (^adjective) ^ Noun.

แดง	มี	รถ	ใหม่
deang	mee	rot	mai
Deang	has	car	new
Subject	Verb	Noun	Adjective

Deang has a new car.

แดง	เป็น	คน	ดี
deang	pen	khon	dee
Deang	is	person	nice
Subject	Verb	Noun	Adjective

Deang is a nice person.

2.4.5 Adverbs

In Thai, adverbs always occur at the end of the sentence. The sentence structure is Subject^Verb^Noun^ (Adverb) as in the examples below:

แดง	ขับ	รถ	เร็วมาก
deang	kub	rot	reaw mak
Deang	drives	car	quickly
Subject	Verb	Noun	Abverb.

Deang drives the car quickly.

2.4.6 Tenses

Verbs in Thai do not change according to tense, person and number as those in many Indo-European languages do. For example, when using the Verb “to be” Is, Am, Are, there is only one form used in Thai language that is ‘เป็น’ as in Figure 2.4.6:

I am	ฉันเป็น ผมเป็น for male ดิฉันเป็น for female
You are	คุณเป็น or ท่านเป็น
We are	เราเป็น
He is	เขาเป็น

She is	เธอเป็น
They are	พวกเขาเป็น
It is	มันเป็น

Figure 2.4.6 Tenses

There is no past tense and future tense in the text but the past tense and future tenses are formed by adding the point of time such as yesterday, last year and tomorrow. Thus, without conjugations Thais are able to express all tenses in flexible way.

Past tense:

เมื่อเช้านี้	แดง	เห็น	ดำ
mua shao nee	deang	hen	dam
In the morning	Deang	saw	Dam
A period of time	Subject	Verb	Object

In the morning, Deang saw Dam.

Future tense:

แดง	จะ	ไป	หัวหิน	อาทิตย์หน้า
deang	ja	pai	huahin	wan ar-tit na
Deang	will	go	Hun-Hin	Next Sunday
Subject	verb		Noun	A period of time

Deang will go to Hua-Hin next Sunday.

For the present continuous tense in Thai, the word ‘กำลัง’ (-ing) is used in front of the verb in the sentence as shown in the example below:

Present Continuous Tense:

แดง	กำลัง	เล่น	เกมส์
deang	gumlung	len	game
Deang	-ing	play	game
Subject		Verb	Noun

Deang is playing a game.

2.4.7 Wh-questions

Unlike in English, the question words ‘what’, ‘when’, ‘where’, ‘why’ and ‘how’ are always at the end of the sentence.

What:

คุณ	ชื่อ	อะไร
khun	shu	a-rai
You	name	what

What is your name?

When:

คุณ	กลับ	บ้าน	เมื่อไหร่
khun	glup	ban	mua-rai
You	back	home	when

When will you go back home?

Where:

คุณ	มาจาก	ที่ไหน
khun	ma jark	tee nai
You	come from	where

Where do you come from?

Why:

คุณ	ทำอย่างนั้น	ทำไม
khun	tam yang nun	tum mai
You	do that	why

Why do you do that?

How:

คุณ	ทำอย่างนั้น	(ได้) อย่างไร
khun	tam yang nun	dai yang rai
You	do that	how

How do you do that?

2.4.8 Passive Particles

In Thai language, there are two choices of passive clauses, which are desirable and undesirable. They both can be distinguished by semantic and lexicogrammatical. Desirable semantically refers to the meaning of benefit; whereas, undesirable refers to the meaning of suffering. Lexicogrammatically, each of these choices has a different form: the desirable one is realised ‘ได้รับ’ (receive, obtain) and undesirable is realised by ‘ถูก’ (sustain, suffer). For examples:

Desirable:

แดง	ได้รับ	จดหมาย	จาก	ดำ
deang	dai rup	jot mai	jark	dam
Deang	Receive (benefit)	letter	from	Dam

(Deang receives a letter from Dam.)

Undesirable:

แดง	ถูก	ดำ	เตะ
deang	took	dam	tae
Deang	suffer	Dam	kick

(Deang was kicked by Dam.)

2.5 Summary

In this chapter, an overview of Thai language and its grammar has been described as it is necessary to understand the general basis of Thai language before going beyond this point to the Functional Grammar theory. Also pointed out is research on Thai

grammar ranging from Thai Traditional Grammar to modern theories of grammar.

The next chapter will present an overview of the Functional approach.

CHAPTER III

Systemic Functional Approach

3.1 Introduction

If we look back in the last two decades, the primary and junior secondary English textbooks were focused on drills and skills work in grammar on page after page. School grammar became merely a formalism, and often very confusing for young learners because of the arbitrariness of its system of rules. Research evidence on the effects of grammar teaching in the early 1970s suggested that the Traditional School grammar made no important contribution to literacy development. Transformational grammar was also proving unproductive for educational purposes. (Williams, 1994)

As a result, in the 1980s grammar that is of practical use in teaching has been introduced. This grammar offered actual uses of language in the living of life. In other words, the development of Functional Grammar has been introduced recently. The question for teachers is what the Functional Grammar is and how it works in the role of language teaching and learning. This chapter presents an introductory account of a particular theory of grammar, namely Systemic-Functional theory. It covers the overview of Systemic Functional Linguistics and Systemic Functional Grammar. The ideas presented in this chapter are based on the work of Michael Halliday (e.g. 1967, 1972, 1973, 1974, 1975, 1978, 1989, 1990, 1993, 1994, Halliday and Hasan 1976) and a group of systemic scholars who have worked with him. Also presented are the differences between the other grammar theory and Hallidayan Functional Grammar.

Before going through an overview of Systemic Function Linguistics and Systemic Functional Grammar, the terms 'Systemic', 'Function' and 'Grammar' have to be presented as they are the key concepts underlying this theory. The systemic approach is increasingly being recognised as providing a very useful descriptive and interpretive framework for viewing language as a strategic, meaning-making resource. (Eggins, 1994) The term 'systemic' is not the same thing as 'systematic'; the term is used because the fundamental concept in grammar is that of the 'system'. A system is a set of options with an entry condition: that is to say, a set of things of which one must be chosen, together with a statement of the conditions under which choice is available, (Kress, 1976) whereas a functional approach to language means investigating how language is used and seeking the nature of language in functional terms (Halliday, 1973). Halliday also pointed out in his book "An Introduction to Functional Grammar" (Halliday, 1994: v) that "It is an introduction to Functional Grammar because the conceptual framework on which it is based is a functional one rather than formal one. It is functional in three distinct although closely related senses: in its interpretation (1) of texts, (2) of the system, and (3) of the elements of linguistic structures." He also illustrated the word 'Systemic' as a theory of meaning as choice, by which a language, or any other semiotic system, is interpreted as networks of interlocking options.

One key assumption in Systemic Functional Grammar, as the name itself suggests, is that to understand the linguistic meaning the function of items in a structure have to be appreciated. The items don't necessarily function in a straightforward additive way, with one word adding to the meaning of the others in the sentence. Rather, their function will be organized through the system of relationships which comprises an

area of the grammar. The term 'systemic' in Systemic Functional Grammar must derive from this assumption.

The word 'Grammar' is the most important word, and there are a lot of researchers written about it. According to Matthiessen and Halliday (1997: 1), grammar is one of the systems of a language; more specifically, it is the system of wordings of a language. But how it is conceptualized will depend on our grammatics (the theory of grammar). There have been two somewhat different theoretical perspectives. In one, Language is a set of rules- rules for specifying structures; so grammar is a set of rules for specifying grammatical structures. Another view states, language is a resource - a resource for making meanings; so grammar is a resource for creating meaning by means of wording.

Chomsky and Halle (1991:10) state; we use the term 'grammar' with a systemic ambiguity. On the one hand, the term refers to the explicit theory constructed by the linguist and proposed as a description of the speaker's competence. Chomsky (1980:19) says "we may think of grammar as represented somehow in the mind, as a system that specifies the phonetic, syntactic, and semantic properties of an infinite class of potential sentences. A child understands language determined by grammar that has been acquired. This grammar is a representation of intrinsic competence." Fromkin, Rodman, Collins and Blair (1990) also describe the notion of grammar and, that grammar represents our linguistics competence. To understand the nature of language we must understand the nature of this internalized, unconscious set of rules, which is part of all grammar of every language.

Le (IR. 9) also mentioned the term 'grammar' has three interpretations as follows:

1. Grammar as literacy convention: the term 'grammar' is very loosely used here. It could mean punctuation, spelling, a prescriptive statement about sentence structure, usage, or many aspects of traditional grammar. This is the most common interpretation by the public.
2. Grammar as a theory: Linguistics presents different views on what language is. Linguists construct grammatical theories to describe language as a linguistic system. In other words, depending on their theoretical orientation, linguists use different grammar to study language. It is similar to different theories psychologists adopt in describing personality. A behaviorist uses a different theoretical model from a psychoanalyst to study personality. Thus, there are different models of grammar such as traditional grammar, structural grammar, case grammar, generative grammar and functional grammar.
3. Grammar as an implicit linguistic knowledge: when we talk to young children, they can talk freely without much understanding on how grammar works in their mother tongue. It is obvious that they must know grammar to be able to talk. Children know how to construct grammatical sentences and avoid ungrammatical ones. For example, they say 'the hungry dog is eating in the corner' but not 'the dog hungry eating is the corner in'. In other words they do know grammar but they cannot explain it to us technically'.

According to Chomsky and Halle (Chomsky 1980; Chomsky and Halle 1991), Fromkin et al (Fromkin et al 1990), Matthiessen and Halliday (Matthiessen and Halliday 1997), other generative grammarians and the Functional Grammar fellows, that the grammar of a language can be represented by a set of rules. A speaker-hearer who is competent in a language has learned these rules, and uses them to determine the grammatical structure of his utterances or those of another speaker, since the rules 'generate' an utterance if and only if grammatical structure can be assigned to it. Competence does not fully determine performance: the speaker's actual utterances may frequently be ungrammatical, and the listener may guess a speaker's intent without consistent reference to the rules.

At this stage, it can initially be pointed out that Functional Grammar probably means a way of looking grammar or a set of rules or language systems in terms of how grammar is used. However, in the field of linguistics, there are a lot of linguists who have written about the meaning of Functional Grammar. For example: Martin, Matthiessen and Painter (1997: 1): Functional Grammar is a way of looking at grammar in terms of how grammar is used. It focuses on the development of grammatical systems as a mean for people to interact with each other. Its orientation is social, in other words, rather than biological. Functional Grammar is not a grammar of etiquette. Rather, Functional Grammar provides tools for understanding why a text is the way it is. Butt, Rhondda, Sue and Collin (1996: 7): Functional Grammar is a way of looking at grammar in terms of how grammar is used. Functional Grammar is a set of resources for describing, interpreting and making meaning. Functional Grammar is used for a variety of tasks. First and foremost it is used for describing languages in a functional system.

Williams (1994: 1): Systemic Functional Grammar is semantically oriented grammar, designed to investigate how meanings are made through grammatical relationships in different social contexts. The Collins Cobuild English Grammar (1990: v) says people who study and use a language are mainly interested in how they can do things with the language - how they can make meanings, get attention to their problems and interests, influence their friends and colleagues and create a rich social life for themselves. They can only be interested in the grammatical structure of the language as a mean to getting things done. Grammar which puts together the patterns of the language and the things language users can do with it is called a Functional Grammar. For Halliday (1985) explains in 'an Introduction to Functional Grammar' that Functional Grammar is a study of wording, but one that interprets the wording by reference to what it means.

To sum up, in accordance with the linguists above, Systemic Functional Grammar is a study of how language works by exploring the grammar and then describing the semantic perspective of the grammar. The next three sections contain an overview of Functional Linguistics, Functional Grammar and exploring Functional Grammar.

3.2 An Overview of Systemic Functional Linguistics

The particular approach to language around which we will centre our account of the application theory to text generation is Systemic Linguistics, which originated in Britain but is now used and developed internationally (Matthiessen and Bateman, 1991). The systemic approach is increasingly being recognized as providing a very

useful and interpretive framework for viewing language as a strategic, meaning-making resource (Eggins, 1994). Two main tasks are presented at this point, these are (i) Text and context and (ii) The strata of language. Also described are the features of the model and the terms of concepts which appear directly relevant to a grammatical study of this kind.

3.2.1 Text and context

Systemic Functional Grammar is a model of language in context. Butt, Rhondda, Sue and Collin (1994: 10) said "a good place to start is to say more precisely what functional linguists mean by TEXT". A text is a piece of language in use; that is, 'Language that is functional' (Halliday and Hasan, 1985: 58). What is important is that a text is a harmonious collection of meanings appropriate to its context. It attempts to explain, on a non-ad hoc basis, the continuities between language and social systems of a speech community (cf. Halliday, 1973, 1974, 1975, 1978; Hasan, 1995)

A text always occurs in two contexts these are the outer context and the inner context. The outer context is known as the CONTEXT OF CULTURE and is described as the sum of all the meanings it is possible to mean in that particular culture (Butt et al, 1994). Hasan (1995) and Halliday (1997) describe it as a semiotic structure construed by the totality of meaning relations that constitute the social system. The inner context is known as the CONTEXT OF SITUATION. Firth (1957) describes context of situation as the social environment of talk which includes the external phenomena that surround the speaker as well as the internal state of the speaker, both of which are highlighted by

language in use. Context of situation is a useful term to cover the things going on in the world outside the text that make the text what it is. Context of situation instantiates context of culture and is itself a theoretical construct (Halliday, 1991) noted that there are three dimensions: (1) the ongoing social activity or **Field**; (2) the role relationships involved or **Tenor**; (3) the symbolic or rhetorical channels or **Mode**. These three dimensions are known as 'the contextual construct'. The 'contextual construct' (the term used by Hasan 1973, 1978) is specified by Halliday and Hasan (1976) as follows:

1. The FIELD OF DISCOURSE refers to what is happening, to the nature of social action that is taking place: what is it that the participants are engaged in, in which the language figures as some essential components?

2. The TENOR OF DISCOURSE refers to who is taking part, to the nature of the participants, their statuses and roles: what kinds of role relationship is obtained among the participants, including permanent and temporary relationship of one kind or another, both the types of speech role that they are taking on in the dialogue and the whole cluster of socially significant relationships in which they are involved?

3. The MODE OF DISCOURSE refers to what part the language is playing, what it is that the participants are expecting the language to do for them in that situation: the symbolic organisation of the text, the status that it has, and its function in the context, including the channel (is it spoken or

written or some combination of the two?) and also the rhetorical mode, what is being achieved by the text in terms of such categories as persuasive, expository, didactic, and the like. (Halliday and Hasan 1985: 12)

They are used to present the social context as the semiotic environment in which people exchange meanings.

In Systemic Functional Linguistics, there are two terms that are important when we have to cope with the text; these are 'Registers' and 'Genre'. To quote Butt et al (1994: 28), the general meaning of the terms 'Register and Genre':

In general, texts which have the same sort of meanings and/or the same structural elements are said to belong to the same TEXT TYPE. In particular, texts with meanings in common are said to belong to the same REGISTER and texts with obligatory structural elements in common are said to belong to the same GENRE.

This means when the texts are sharing the same context of situation and three kinds of meanings, which are experiential, interpersonal and textual meanings (Attention will be drawn to Systemic Functional Grammar in section 3.3); they belong to the same register. Unlike 'Register', when texts are sharing the same general purpose in the culture or context of culture, they are often sharing the same obligatory and optional structural elements and they thus belong to the same 'Genre'.

There is one scholar who has developed the relationship between context of culture and of situation, Bronislaw Malinowski, the anthropologist. Malinowski made an enormous contribution to identifying the fundamental semantic role of the context of culture and context of situation and in developing a functional account of a language. The seminal ideas he has (1923, 1935) on the centrality of the context of culture and of situation to the uses of language in the living of life were developed into a schematic construct. The linguist J.R. Firth has developed more theory of meaning in context in relation to Malinowski's work. Firth extended the notion of context of situation to the more general issue of linguistic predictability (Eggins, 1994). Firth has presented his view of the following structure of situation: (Firth 1957:182)

A. The relevant features of participants: person, personalities.

(i) The verbal action of the participants.

(ii) The non-verbal action of the participants.

B. The relevant objects.

C. The effect of the verbal action.

Firth's notion of context of situation provided much insight into the study of language in social life. His contextual framework becomes the foundation for the Systemic Functional model. The major contributions are between the organisation of language itself and specific contextual features (Eggins, 1994). Context of situation thus instantiates context of culture and is itself a theoretical construct, comprising of three features (Halliday, 1991): field, tenor and mode that we have been mentioned above.

3.2.2 The Strata of Language

The part set out to explain what is referred to in Systemic Linguistics as the strata of language. The internal strata of language are lexicogrammar, semantics and phonology. The main characteristics of each of the strata are as discussed below. Matthiessen (1995: 5 – 6) has described the general terms of lexicogrammar, semantics and phonology as follows:

Semantics: Resources for meaning, this level is the gateway to the linguistics system; for instance, it enables us to act by means of meaning, i.e. by adopting semantic strategies, and it enables us to reflect on the world by turning it into meaning, i.e. by semanticizing it. The stratal role of semantics is thus that of an interface – an interface between systems that lie outside language and systems at the stratum of lexicogrammar. Since meaning is interpreted as a resource, it is a functional/ rhetorical/ communicative phenomenon rather than a formal/ logico – philosophical one and this is reflected in two ways in the conception of semantics: (i) It is multifunctional; it is concerned only with representational meaning; and (ii) It is semantics of text (discourse), not only of propositions. The latter follows from the observation that text (rather than words or sentences) is the process of communication.

Lexicogrammar: a resource for wording meanings, i.e., for realising (expressing) them by means of structures and ‘words’ (more strictly, grammatical and lexical items), or wordings. Lexicogrammar includes lexis (vocabulary) as well as grammar in one unified system; lexis is interpreted as the most specific (delicate) part of grammar. Grammar includes morphology as well as syntax; the two are not stratally distinct.

Phonology: a resource for sounding wording, i.e., for realising abstract wordings as sound. Phonology includes intonational resources, which serve to realise grammatical choices directly, as well as resources of rhythm and of syllabic and phonemic articulation, which are not in direct realisation relation to grammar. (Alternatively, this stratum may be the graphological system of a language.)

Semantics: this relates upwards to context, and phonology related downwards to phonetics of articulation while the heart of language, lexicogrammar, is located between semantics and phonology.

- Rank

“Hallidayan linguistics employ the notion of rank” (Bloor and Bloor, 1995: 6). The notion of rank is closely related to the three notion unit, constituency, and syntagm. In Systemic Functional theory, the unit is a category, set up to account for the stretches of language of varying lengths and composition carrying grammatical patterns (cf. Halliday 1961, Halliday in Kress 1976, see also Butler 1985). When two units are combined, they form a unit that is a bigger size, in the book *Traditional Grammar*. Saussure referred it as a structure or syntagm. The notion of constituency is implicit in this discourse. Constituency helps to account for units of different sizes on a horizontal scale (i.e., from the ‘largest’ to ‘smallest’) while the placement of units on rank scale helps to explain those units on a vertical (hierarchical) scale from the ‘highest’ to the ‘lowest’. Eggins (1994: 124) has stated “ It is ranked because it has been organised in term of biggest to smallest; for example, a clause complex consists

of one or more clauses; a clause consists of one or more groups or phrase; a group consists of one or more words; and a word consists of one or more morphemes. These can be described as a 'rank scale' according to Halliday (1994). Butt et al (1996: 29) have created the rank scale Figure in order to understand grammatical systems. The rank scale Figure is as follow:

Rank Scale	Clause complex
	Clause
	Group or phrase
	Word
	Morpheme

Figure 3.2.2 Rank scale at the grammatical stratum (Butt et al, 1996: 29)

Rank – based theory allows a unit of a particular rank to realise a functional element of the rank immediately above; for example, a group will serve to realise an element of clause structure, a word will serve to realise an element of group structure, and a morpheme will serve to realise an element of word structure. Furthermore, the theory also allows for what has been referred to as rankshift in more complex structures. In other words, a unit can function as part of another unit equal or lower rank. The prepositional phrase of systemic choices in the clause; for example, a structure is the realisation of systemic choices that does not serve to realise a clausal function but rather a nominal group function, acting as a Qualifier to Thing realisation.

As the Figure above shows we can see that the unit of text does not belong to the lexicogrammar rank scale. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 2) explain that “a text is not something that is like a sentence, only bigger; it is something that differs from a

sentence in kind. A text is best regarded as a semantic unit: a unit not of form but of meaning. Thus, it is related to a clause or sentences; it is realised by, or encoded in, sentences (original emphasis)".

3.3 An Overview of Systemic Functional Grammar

Through this section, the history of the Systemic Functional Grammar and the differences between Hallidayan the Functional Grammar and the other types of grammar will be explored.

3.3.1 The History of Systemic Functional Grammar

Systemic Functional Grammar grew out of the work by JR Firth, a British linguist from the 30s, 40s and 50s, but was mainly developed by his student M.A.K Halliday. Then, Systemic Functional Grammar was initially devised by Micheal Halliday in the early 1960s based in England, he moved to Australia in the seventies, and it continues to be developed by him. There he established the department of linguistics at the University of Sydney. Through his teaching there, Systemic Functional Grammar has spread to a number of people who later have further developed Systemic Functional Grammar in his theory such as Ruquiya Hasa (1987), Christian Matthiessen (1992) and Jim Martin (1992) into a historic theory of language in context.

Functional Grammar is used for a variety of tasks. Part of its particular appeal is that it enables us to relate grammatical structure such that we can determine what people mean when they use language in context. The principles of Functional Grammar were

initially worked out for Chinese, which was the first language Halliday has been studying in detail, then he has developed the principles in his work on English grammar. However, Functional grammarians seldom stop at simply describing the grammar of a particular language. They developed Functional Grammar to explore other points on language. For example, Cope and Kalantzis (1993) Functional Grammar has been used to develop literacy programmes for primary and secondary school students; Matthiessen and Bateman (1991) it has been used as the basis for automatic text analysis and generation in computational contexts; Fairclough (1992) it has been used as the basis for critical discourse analysis. Recently it has been used for purposes of diagnosis and therapy in speech pathology, for text analysis in forensic setting and for the development of workplace training programmes. (Martin et al, 1997)

Although the main work of Systemic Functional Grammar has moved and spread to Australia. Systemic Functional Grammar teaching and research also continued in the UK after Halliday developed it in the 1960s. The main proponents were Margaret Berry, Dick Hudson, Chris Butler, Robin Fewcett, and many others. Then later another branch was established in Toronto Canada, under Michael Gregory, and later Jim Benson, Michael Cummings, Bill Greaves and so on.

3.3.2 The Differences between Functional Grammar and the Other Grammar

As pointed out above Systemic Functional Grammar has been developed by many other linguists and spread to many branches around the world. One major question on which this section bears is: What are the differences of the Functional Grammar comparing with other theories? To answer this question, presented below are the grammar theories from Traditional School Grammar, Generative Grammar of Chomsky, Lexical Functional Grammar and Functional Grammar of Simon Dik. Further each theory is compared to Functional Grammar.

A) Traditional School Grammar

Traditional School Grammar has been around since the middle Ages in Europe. There is a lot of evidence that the grammarians have talked about the history of this theory.

To quote one of them: (IR.10)

“During the early Middle Ages, Latin grammar was the main subject taught in the monastic schools, which were the principal European educational institutions of that time. As colleges and universities developed and education became more secular, the Latin grammar school became a college-preparatory school. Gradually the study of grammar came to include all subjects relating to written language, such as style.”

Throughout Europe, many of the principles of these early grammar schools were maintained during the first years of the 20th century. Until the present time, there are a lot of schools which still use this theory to teach grammar when they need their students to study their first language or even a second language.

Traditional School Grammar is a classificatory grammar, assigning words to classes such as noun, verb, adjective, preposition etc. These are known as parts of speech. In Traditional School Grammar the 'parts of speech' were defined semantically – 'a noun is the name of a person, place or thing', 'a verb is a doing word' etc. More elaborate forms of Traditional Grammar would include more exotic categories like gerunds and participles, and the names of different kinds of clause - coordinating and subordinating, indicative, imperative and so on. And parsing might in addition involve picking out the Subject of a sentence, along with its Predicate and Direct or Indirect Object (or Complement as Objects were sometimes called).

Traditional School Grammar was used in an attempt to prescribe the standard language form. The standard form was that used by dominant social groups in England. Thus the concepts of "correctness" and "good grammar" come, not from features internal to the language itself, the usage adopted by particular social class groups. The teaching of Traditional Grammar then involved children learning rules of grammar, many of which were in blatant contradiction with the way the majority of people actually used language. In other words, Traditional School Grammar is **prescriptive grammar**, and prescriptive grammar is based on Latin grammatical

forms. Latin was restricted to certain social class groups; therefore, this type of grammar is based on the social practices of a particular class group.

As stated above, there seems to be a number of differences between Traditional School Grammar and Functional Grammar. Firstly, compared with Traditional School Grammar and formal grammar, Systemic Functional Grammar makes use of class labels like noun, verb, adjective, adverb, pronoun and conjunction. These are known as parts of speech. Beyond this, Systemic Functional Grammar makes extensive use of function labels like Actor, Process, Goal, Theme, Rheme, Deictic, Numerative, Classifier, and Thing. The function labels are there to make the grammatical analysis semantically revealing to show how the clauses, groups and phrases of a text map and its meaning.

Secondly, Traditional Grammar is also a classificatory grammar, forming words into classes such as noun, verb, adjective, and preposition. However, this kind of grammar is not well oriented to understanding how meaning is built up in a text and it is not able to deal with the text at all, but rather only with individual sentences, clauses and mostly, individual words. Functional Grammar is more concerned about text, clause and context. Michael Halliday in *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* (1994) describes language in term of a Rank scale. He makes use of the Rank scale in order to understand how a system of human language works. The Rank scale ranges from complex clause, clause, group or phrase, word and morpheme. Halliday's main purpose in writing an *Introduction to Functional Grammar* was not to orient the grammar to any single defined area of application, but to provide a general grammar for purposes of text analysis and interpretation.

Last but not least, perhaps the most important difference between traditional school grammar and Systemic Functional Grammar is the metaphor of choice. While school grammar has prescribed the correct form, Functional Grammar views language as a resource - one which makes semantic choices available to speakers and writers, Functional Grammar is not a prescriptive grammar which tells speakers what speakers can or cannot say and provides rules for correcting what are often referred to as grammatical errors. It is rather functional in the sense that it is designed to account for how the language is used.

B) Generative Grammar

“The Generative Grammar of a particular language (where “generative” means nothing more than “explicit”) is a theory that is concerned with the form and meaning of expressions of this language. One can imagine many different kinds of approach to such questions, many points of view that might be adopted in dealing with them. Generative Grammar limits itself to certain elements of this larger picture. Its standpoint is that of individual psychology. It is concerned with those aspects of form and meaning that are determined by the “language faculty”, which is understood to be a particular component of the human mind.” (Chomsky, 1986: 10)

“Generative Grammar is sometimes referred to as a theory, advocated by this or that person. In fact, it is not a theory any more than chemistry is a theory. Generative Grammar is a topic, which one may or may not choose to study” (Chomsky, 1986:11)

From the quote above, Generative Grammar is a general term for the system of language analysis originated by Noam Chomsky in the 1950's to bring scientific rigor to the field of linguistics. Chomsky characterizes grammar as "a device of some sort for producing the sentences of the language under analysis" (Chomsky, 1957: 11). It can be said that the Generative Grammar is a description of a native speaker's intuitive knowledge of the construction of their language, referred to in linguistics as "competence". Grammar is inherently axiomatic, and Generative Grammar is described technically as a system that "sets forth rules or instructions for producing an infinite number of sentences in a language." (Bornstein, 1984) Chomsky explains his motivations for the study of language in *Reflections on Language* (Chomsky, 1975):

"One reason to study language - and for me personally the most compelling reason - is that it is tempting to regard language, in the traditional phrase, as 'a mirror of mind'. I do not mean by this simply that concepts expressed and distinctions developed in normal language use give us insight into the patterns of thought and the world of 'common sense' constructed by the human mind. More intriguing, to me at least, is the possibility that by studying language we may discover abstract principles that govern its structure and use, principles that are universal by biological necessity and not mere historical accident, that derive from the mental characteristics of the species". (Chomsky, 1975: 13)

Chomsky postulated a syntactic base of language (called deep structure), which consists of a series of phrase-structure rewrite rules, i.e., a series of (possibly universal) rules that generates the underlying phrase-structure of a sentence, and a

series of rules (called transformations) that act upon the phrase-structure to form more complex sentences. The end result of a Transformational-Generative Grammar is a surface structure that, after the addition of words and pronunciations, is identical to an actual sentence of a language. All languages have the same deep structure, but they differ from each other in surface structure because of the application of different rules for transformations, pronunciation, and word insertion. Another important distinction made in Transformational - Generative Grammar is the difference between language competence (the subconscious control of a linguistic system) and language performance (the speaker's actual use of language). Although the first work done in Transformational-Generative Grammar was syntactic, later studies have applied the theory to the phonological and semantic components of language.

To compare, Systemic Functional Grammar looks at language primarily in its relation to society and social interaction, whereas Generative Grammar looks at language primarily in its relation to the structure or Syntax. Chomsky said that he was interested in the mind with relative neglect of the relationships between form and function. In other words, Halliday took a different view of grammar to that of Chomsky. Where Chomsky excluded meaning from the study of grammar, Halliday insisted that it is central. He developed a structure that he called Functional Grammar to formalise meaning into the structure of language. Functional Grammar attempts to define a structure for language which explains the way it works in terms of the function it has - to convey meaning; without meaning language becomes an intentionless process of sonic interference.

Moreover, the reliance on principles rather than rules has consequences also for the interpretation of the term generative grammar that has been associated with the Chomskyan approach since it first appeared. 'Generative' means that the description is rigorous and explicit; thus, Generative Grammar means only that it is sufficiently explicit to determine how sentences of the language are in fact characterised by the grammar. (Chomsky, 1980a) On the other hand, in Halliday's view, grammar that was only satisfactory for the analysis of individual sentences would be incomplete. He needs grammar that also accounts for conversations or other types of spoken and written English longer than a sentence. (Bloor and Bloor, 1995) Halliday (1994) said that there is no way of making explicit one's interpretation of the meaning of a text. Thus the present interest in discourse analysis is in fact providing a context within which grammar has a central place. For one thing, the choice of words and the word order of one sentence often depend on the sentence that it follows. For another, the language has special words, such as pronouns, that can refer to the same entities as previously used words.

It is perhaps true to say that Systemic Linguists are more inclined than Transformational-Generative Linguists to seek verification of their hypotheses by means of observations from collections of texts and by means of statistical techniques. (Berry, 1975)

C) Lexical Functional Grammar

Lexical Functional Grammar arose in the late 1970s through the collaboration of Joan Bresnan, a linguist, and Ronald Kaplan, a computer scientist, who were dissatisfied

with then current transformational models of language and were seeking a more 'realistic' approach - from its inception Lexical Functional Grammar has been concerned to be a model that is typologically grounded computationally implementable and consistent of psycholinguistics understanding of language acquisition and comprehension. (IR.11)

Therefore, Lexical Functional Grammar is a unification-based linguistic formalism which is suitable for computation. LFG uses different structures for representing different levels of linguistic information about a sentence: a tree structure -- constituent structure (c-structure) -- for representing sentence structure; a relatively order-free attribute-value bundle pair functional structure (f-structure) for representing the higher syntactic and functional information (Bresnan, 1982); and an f-structure look-alike semantic structure (s-structure) for representing semantic information (Halvorsen and Kaplan, 1988). Structural correspondences are defined to relate the elements of a c-structure to those of an f-structure and the elements of an f-structure to those of an s-structure. We are going to look at some basic components within the Lexical Functional Grammar formalism. (IR.12)

Furthermore, Lexical Functional Grammar is a theory of grammar -- that is, in general terms, a theory of:

- Syntax (roughly, how words can be combined together to make larger phrases, such as sentences),

- Morphology (how morphemes --- parts of words, such as the parts of *writers*, namely the verb *write*, the 'agentive affix' *er* and the plural marker *+s* --- can be combined to make up words); and
- Semantics (how and why various words and combinations of words mean what they mean).

In addition, grammar is often taken to include **phonology** (the study of the sound systems of human languages), but Lexical Functional Grammar has relatively little to say about this.

To compare with Hallidayan Functional Grammar, Lexical Functional Grammar is a theory of language structure that deals with the syntax, morphology and semantics of natural language, whereas, Functional Grammar deals with four strata Context, Semantics, Lexicogrammar and Phonology. Next, Lexical Functional Grammar is distinguished from Functional Grammar by having several parallel representations for sentences, each with its own architecture and vocabulary, and subject to its own organizational constraints.

D) The Functional Grammar of Simon Dik's theory

Functional Grammar (FG) is a generative linguistic theory that is influenced by predicate logic. FG was developed by Simon Dik in the late 70's, but has undergone a major revision in 1989. Not with standing, this revision the theory of FG is still under development.

Functional Grammar (FG) is a general theory of the organization of natural language as developed by Simon C. Dik and others. In the theory functional notions play essential and fundamental roles at different levels of grammatical organization. The theory is based on data and descriptions of many languages, and therefore has a high degree of typological adequacy. Functional Grammar offers a platform for both theoretical linguists interested in representation and formalism and descriptive linguists interested in data and analysis. (IR.12) In other words, Dik's approach is intended to be applicable to any natural language, he has drawn particularly on English to illustrate and explain it; yet there are numerous places in which there is an obvious need to specify how this works more closely.

FG wishes to be a theory, which is 'functional' in at least three different, though interrelated senses:

- It takes a functional view of the natural of language;
- It attaches primary importance to functional relations at different levels in the organization of grammar;
- It wishes to be practically applicable to the analysis of different aspects of language and language use. (IR.13)

Functional Grammar consists of several hierarchically organized modules, each with its own task. At the lowest level there is the lexicon, which consists of a finite set of basic predicates. A process, which is called "fund formation", constructs derived predicates from the basic predicates in lexicon. These derived predicates form the fund. A further process, called "clause structure formation", combines derived predicates with operators that are taken from some fixed set into a clause structure.

These clause structures serve as the underlying representations of sentences. Two further processes are needed to come from an underlying representation to a sentence. First, the lexical form of the words in the sentence are specified, by the “form specifying expression rules”. Next, the order of these words within a sentence is determined, by the “order specifying expression rules”. A computationally attractive property of the theory of Functional Grammar is its aversion to things like transformations, filters, deletions and substitutions. That is, no changes are allowed within structures that are composed at an earlier stage.

To compare, the Functional Linguistics in Dik’s theory are different to Halliday’s theory.

First of all, Functional Grammar (Dik, 1989) is a linguistic model that distinguishes functional relations at three levels: **the semantic, the syntactic and the pragmatic** level. At each of these levels, functions are considered to be primitive notions of linguistic description and explanation. In Hallidayan Functional Grammar (Halliday, 1994), language has been interpreted as consisting of different levels of abstraction for description such as phonology, morphology, syntax and lexicon. Within systemic Functional Linguistics, there have been various proposals concerning the number of strata Halliday (1978). There are four strata, which, in order of abstraction, are termed **context, semantics, lexicogrammar and phonology**. Halliday (1994) said that, phonological constituency is one of the language systems. All natural discourse in spoken language is made up of an unbroken succession of a tone group, rhythm and intonation.

Secondly, Dik focused his analysis on the study of transformations affecting the syntactic structure when nominalizing a sentence; the other, less 'formalist', which leans towards Halliday's theory of grammatical metaphor where the research and publications of Halliday himself, Martin, Downing, or Eggins are most prominent.

Thirdly, there is something that seems to be similar but it is different that is the functional relations. The functional notions of Dik's theory play essential and fundamental roles at different levels of grammatical organization. There are three types of functions, which are similar to Halliday's theory but they have different terms as in the table shown below:

Dik's theory	Halliday's theory
Semantic Functions (Agent, Patient, Recipient, etc)	Experiential (Goal, Process, Actor, etc)
Syntactic Functions (Subject and Object)	Interpersonal (Subject and Finite)
Pragmatic Functions (Theme and Tails, Topic and Focus)	Textual (Theme and Rheme)

Table 3.2.2 Functional relations VS Metafunction

To conclude, one should know that it is important to remember that all functional approaches to grammar description, grammar teaching and functional grammar are firmly steeped in earlier tradition, building on the past not rejecting it. The approaches

above have been explained with particular reference to Hallidayan Systemic Functional Grammar which is the model of this study. However, the differences of each theory above pointed out that Functional Grammar is a theory that studies how the language works. Functional Grammar explores 4 strata of the language, which are Phonology (the system of sound), Lexicogrammar (the system of wording, Semantic (the system of meaning) and context (the categories of social situation). In short, Functional Grammar makes use of the relation between these strata to explore how language works in each context, and it is designed to display the overall system of grammar rather than only fragments. It also attempts to explain, on a non-ad hoc basis, the continuities between language and the social systems of a speech community (cf. Halliday 1973, 1974, 1975, 1978). Moreover, for Halliday, his grammar is semantic, concerned with meaning and function and also concerned with how the language is used. As pointed out, Functional Grammar is distinguished when compared with other theories.

3.4 Exploring Functional Grammar

Next the attention will be drawn to only those features of the model which appear directly relevant to a grammatical study of this kind. The aim of this section is simply to indicate what a three-strand functional description looks like. To make the task manageable, the review is organised around two major headings: (i) Three kinds of meaning (ii) Three kinds of metafunction.

3.4.1 Three Kinds of Meaning

There are too many reasons why people are talking together. One of the most intricate distinctions concerns the kind of commodity being exchanged such as using language to exchange information and using it to exchange goods and services. In other words, people use language to interact with other people, to establish and maintain relationships with them, to influence their behaviour, to express our own viewpoint on things in the world, and to elicit or change theirs. According to Halliday (1985), the label for this metafunction is ‘**interpersonal**’. People also use language to talk about our experience of the world, including the worlds in our own minds, to describe events and states and the entities involved in them. (Thompson, 1996) The label for this metafunction is ‘**experiential**’. Finally, in using language, people organise their messages in ways which indicate how they fit in with the other messages around them and with the wider context in which they are talking or writing. The label for this metafunction is ‘**textual**’. In Hallidayan Functional Grammar, the three categories above are used as the basis for exploring how meanings are created and understood, because they allow the matching of particular types of functions/meaning with particular types of wordings to an extent that other categorisations generally do not.

3.4.2 Three kinds of Metafunction

‘Systemic Functional Grammar is a way of describing lexical and grammatical choices from the system of wording so that we are always aware of how language is being used to realize the meaning’ (Butt et al, 1996) Functional approach itself needs technical terms to describe the different elements for analyzing the lexicogrammar and meaning of texts. The more specific functions as have been pointed out as in the three kinds of meaning above and are hence referred to as the broad functions as

metafunctions. The labels for each of the metafunctions are reasonably transparent: the first is the interpersonal; the second is the experiential; and the third is the textual.

The three kinds of Metafunctions are explained here with the utterance ‘Who’s taken his book?’ In doing this analysis, work has been done with three different sets of labels, corresponding to the three kinds of functional roles that the elements in the clause serve.

Firstly, we analyse the utterance ‘Who’s taken his book?’ as an interpersonal function, clause as an interaction. The grammatical systems involved here at the clause rank are those of Mood and Modality. The two key elements in the MOOD structure are the Subject and Finite. The Subject is the grammatical entity which is responsible in the sentence. The Finite is the element, which can indicate the location in time of the clause relative to the speaker’s now.

In order to understand the role of the Subject and Finite, we also need to examine the meanings expressed by both of them and then see how they work together as MOOD in the sentence.

Who	has	taken	his book?
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement

Fig 3.4.1 Analysis from the interpersonal perspective

In this Figure, ‘who’ is the Subject, we are looking at the clause from the interpersonal perspective of how the speaker negotiates meanings with the listener.

‘Has’ is Finite. On the other hand, if the clause is changed from active to passive as in Figure 3.4.2 below, the Subject will be changed to ‘his book’, the Finite is still ‘has’ and ‘by who’ forms as adjunct which has been split up.

Who	has	his book	been taken	by?
Adjunct	Finite	Subject	Predicator	Adjunct

Fig 3.4.2 Interpersonal analysis of a passive clause

Secondly, the utterance above will be analysed by using the experiential perspective. To label ‘Who’ as an Actor indicates that it has the function of expressing the doer of the action expressed in the process. Moreover, ‘who’ is still labelled as an Actor in the passive sentence as in Figure 3.4.4.

Who	has taken	his book
Actor	Process	Goal

Fig 3.4.3 Analysis from interpersonal perspective

Who	has	his book	been taken	by?
Actor		Goal	Process	

Fig 3.4.4 Experiential analysis of a passive clause

Thirdly, the utterance is analysed from the textual perspective. There are two terms in thematic structure. The first one is the ‘Theme’ that is the idea represented by the constituent at the starting point of the clause and the second one is the ‘Rheme’ that is

the rest of the message. In this utterance, ‘Who’ in both active and passive sentences are labelled as ‘Theme’ and the rest of the sentence can certainly be labelled as ‘Rheme’

Who	has taken his book?
Theme	Rheme

Fig 3.4.5 Analysis from textual perspective

Who	has his book been taken by?
Theme	Rheme

Fig 3.4.6 Textual analysis of a passive clause

The reason for separating them into three perspectives is to explore them for the purposes of grammatical analysis. However, we will see something different when we bring them all together to explore the meaning. The meaning of the clause comes from all three types of meaning simultaneously. We can see that when the sentence is reworded to the passive, the same element remains Actor and Theme but there is no longer a Subject. Thompson (1996) stated that the change in wording, as always, reflects a change in meaning, though in this case it is quite difficult to pin down exactly what the difference is.

These three perspectives are the most important concepts of Systemic Functional Grammar. These contextual categories operate simultaneously in text, and each of them above is metafunctionally specialised with each set of the systems of meaning (semantic), system of wording (lexicogrammar) and the abstract parameters. Hasan

(1993) has illustrated the Metafunctions above relating them to the systems of meaning, systems of wording and the abstract parameters in the table below:

Metafunction	Contextual Variable	Meaning System	Wording system
Interpersonal	Social relation (TENOR)	Role exchange; assessment of probability and obligation	Mood system; systems of modality
Experiential	Social action (FIELD)	States of affairs	TRANSITIVITY system; lexical system
Logical		Relations of states of affairs	
Textual	Semiotic organisation (MODE)	Point of departure Point of identity, Similarity	Thematic, information systems phoricity, lexical field

Table 3.4 Context, Semantics and Lexicogrammar: Metafunctional Resonance

(From Hasan: 1993:91)

Halliday (1994) has made use of each metafunction to analyse text in English language using the system of meaning and the system of wording including contextual variable. Furthermore, he also analysed further issues where clauses are combined

into complex clauses or ‘above the clause’. This becomes the fourth Metafunction which is called a Logical Metafunction as shown in Hasan’s table above. It is the logical component of the grammar that handles similarities and differences. The following examples are coded from Halliday (1994: 234):

She said, “I can’t do it”- Did she really say that?

She said she couldn’t do it – Did she really say so?

As the topic suggests, this study is concerned with the experiential meaning, particularly that aspect which is construed by TRANSITIVITY. The essential notions are related to the description of the experiential grammar such as process, participants, inherent and non-inherent roles, and nuclear and circumstantial TRANSITIVITY. Drawing on Halliday’s model of experience, I have proposed a system of PROCESS TYPE in Thai language which recognises three major primary options which are the Being process, the Projecting process and the Doing process.

3.5 Summary

Systemic Functional Grammar treats the relation between form and meaning in terms of dialectic realisation; i.e., form (lexicogrammar) realises meaning (semantics) meaning activates form; and thus the relation between these two facets of language is natural, not arbitrary. The most important thing is that Systemic Functional Grammar views meaning as the interface between wording (lexicogrammar) and the context of situation. Systemic Functional Grammar is also a grammar that is valid only if it can show how meanings are construed, and meanings are valid only if they can be shown

to underlie wordings. These reasons constitute my justification for adopting Systemic Functional Grammar as the theoretical framework for this study. Now we turn to Chapter IV – A basic concept of the system of TRANSITIVITY.

CHAPTER IV

Basic Concept of TRANSITIVITY

4.1 Introduction

This study is concerned with an aspect of the grammar clause in Thai; so, the clause is a central concept of this study. In the Systemic Functional model (Halliday 1967, 1968, 1970, 1978, 1985, 1994 and elsewhere), the representation of the clause of the language is not seen as having a single strand of meaning but rather a number that are fused together on to each other in the process of realisation to produce a single wording: the interpersonal, the experiential and the textual strand. This study is limited to explore the structures in the clause as a representation and the experiential systems, its role as a means of representing patterns of experience. As Halliday (1985: 101) has described it in *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* (IFG): “a fundamental property of language is that it enables the human picture of reality, to make sense of their experience of what goes on around them and inside them.” He also stated that the clause is a representation of the most significant grammatical unit. It represents a process of reality consisting of ‘the doing process’, ‘the happening process’ ‘the feeling process’ and ‘the being process’ which are sorted out in semantic system of the language and expressed through the grammar of the clause.

As stated above, this study is concerned with the experiential meaning, particularly that aspect which is construed by TRANSITIVITY. This chapter focuses on a general introduction to TRANSITIVITY. It aims at introducing some basic notions related to the

description of the experiential grammar in the clause, which is generally referred to in Systemic Functional Grammar as “systemic features” for further exploration see chapters V to IX. Since the description of the TRANSITIVITY system in Thai language presented in this study is written in English and, more importantly, is based on the SF model, reference is made; in particular, to the works of Halliday, we will be employing the terminology or labels which Halliday and other SF grammarians of English have used to describe the English language.

4.2 The general meaning of TRANSITIVITY.

Thompson, G, 1996:78 described the meaning of TRANSITIVITY as below:

The term TRANSITIVITY will probably be familiar as a way of distinguishing between verbs according to whether they have an object or not. In particular, it refers to a system for describing the whole clause, rather than just the verb and its Objects. It does, though, share with the traditional use a focus on the verbal group, since it is the type of process which determines how the participants are labelled.

Martin et al (1997) have also described the system of TRANSITIVITY as quoted below:

This system of TRANSITIVITY belongs to the experiential Metafunction and is an overall grammatical resource for construing goings on. It construes this flux of experience as quantum of change. These are represented as a configuration of a process, participants involved in it, and ways in which they may unfold,

but the grammar construes out a small number of distinct types, each with its own particular characteristics. These are constituted in process types.

TRANSITIVITY has been described as a resource for constructing our experience in terms of configurations of a process, participants and circumstances. Such configurations are determined by two major systems, those of process type, and circumstantiation. For the participant roles, they are explored as nuclear participants associated with each process type. However, there are two further participants, Beneficiary and Range which are closer to circumstances than the other participants. (See Section 4.4) The concepts of process, participant and circumstance are semantic categories which explain in the most general way how phenomena of the real world are represented as linguistics structure. In the following sections we describe the different types of process that are built in to the semantics of English, and the particular kinds of participant role that are systematically associated with each.

4.3 Process Types

Martin et al (1997:102) have explored the general meaning of 'process type' as below:

“Process type is the resource for sorting out our experience of all kinds of events into a small number of types. These differ both with respect to the Process itself and the number and kind of participants involved. The system discriminates six different types of Process in English. The three major ones are material, mental and relational, each with a small set of subtypes. In

addition, there are three further Process types, Behavioral, Verbal and Existential.”

4.3.1 Material Process: Processes of Doing

The traditional definition of a verb is described as ‘a doing word’ such as running, scratching, cooking, sitting and so on. These are called material processes. The doer of this type of action is called the Actor and the second participant impacted by doing is called the Goal. Material processes are the processes of doing and sometimes happening, including actions, activities, and events. They express the meaning that some entity does something. If we want to find out the events encoded in clauses we will ask the question “What did he/she do? But if the process is one of happening, we can ask “What happened to him/her? Take the Figure below as an example;

The dog	bit	the boy	The boy	was bitten by	the dog
Actor	Process	Goal	Goal	Process	Actor

Figure 4.3.1-1 Active and passive clause

From the Figure above, we have forms of probes; what did the dog do? Or what happened to the boy? However, in some sentences of the material processes, the Actor may not appear explicitly in the clause. One of the main ways in which this can happen is by the choice of a passive clauses such as “She did not kill herself, She was murdered.” ‘She’ is directly coded as the Goal and the semantic relationship to the process has not changed. The probe is “What happened to her?” because this is a happening rather than doing. There are more abstract processes where we find active

and passive forms side by side with very little difference between them as in Figure 4.3.1-2.

The two companies	combined	The two companies	combined
Actor	Process	Goal	Process

Figure 4.3.1-2 Active and passive in an abstract process

Note that we can ask “Who by?” as an explicit Actor only in the passive process. And this is what justifies us in still giving a different functional status to the participant in the two cases, where the two companies are Actors in both clauses.

4.3.2 Mental Processes: Processes of Sensing

There are clear differences between something that goes on in the external world and something that goes on in the internal world of the mind. There are many verbs that refer to the mental processes such as thinking, imagining, liking, wanting, seeing and so on. Matthiessen and Halliday (1997:19) have explained the general meaning of mental process as below

“A mental clause construes sensing, perception, intention, cognition, and emotion; configurations of a process of consciousness involving a participant endowed with consciousness and typically a participant entering into or created by that consciousness.”

The one inherent participant is the ‘sensor’ and the further type of participant that is being sensed is called ‘the Phenomenon’. However, there are a wide range of units that can serve as the Phenomenon.

Susan	likes	the flower.
She	could hear	the voice.
He	notices	something.
He	regrets	that she’s gone
Senser	process	Phenomenon

Figure 4.3.2 Senser and phenomenon

Halliday (1985: 108-111) has stated five criteria for distinguishing between mental process clauses and material processes. First of all, mental processes always involve at least one human participant but if an inanimate participant is represented, a degree of humanness is bestowed on that participant by its involvement in the process. Secondly, the phenomenon is less restricted than the entities in material process. It can be a person, a concrete object and an abstraction but it is able to serve as ‘a fact’ as if it is almost ‘a thing’ in the material process. For example, “*He regrets that she has gone*”, ‘that she has gone’ is a fact. ‘A fact’ can be sensed but they can do nothing and vice versa, nothing could have done it. Thirdly, in material processes the most natural sense is the continuous form; whereas, the most natural sense in the mental process is the simple form. We can say “She likes the flower” but we cannot say, “She is liking the flower”. The fourth criterion is that many mental processes are reversible. It is equally possible to have the subject role filled either by the human participant in whose mind the process occurs or by the Phenomenon which triggers the process. In

other words, the mental processes are represented as a two ways process. We can say “She likes the flower” or “the flower pleases her”. There are many parallel words in the mental process such as ‘fear - frighten’, ‘enjoy – delight, admire – impress and so on. Last of all, we cannot probe the mental process as ‘What did she/he do?’ like in the material process because it is not a kind of doing. For example, we can’t probe it as “What did she do with the flower? – she likes it”.

There is a further difference between material processes and mental processes: while a number of processes have no Goal, with mental processes there are always two participants involved. However, it is particularly the Phenomenon and Senser can be omitted but the omission tends to occur in more restricted context. For example, “Can you hear?” the phenomenon is omitted in this sentence, and “My leg doesn’t hurt”, the Senser in this sentence is ‘me’ but it can be omitted. (Thompson, 1996)

4.3.3 Relational Processes: Processes of Being

According to Halliday (1994), Relational processes are those of Being processes such as “John is a teacher”. There are three types of Relational processes:

(1) intensive	‘ <i>x</i> is <i>a</i> ’
(2) circumstantial	‘ <i>x</i> is at <i>a</i> ’
(3) possessive	‘ <i>x</i> has <i>a</i> ’

The above three types come in two modes:

- (i) attributive ‘*a* is an attribute of *x*’
- (ii) identifying ‘*a* is the identify of *x*’

The six possible classifications of Relational processes in terms of modes and types are given below:

Type	Mode	(i) Attributive	(ii) Identifying
(1) Intensive		The performance is wonderful	John is the President; The President is John
(2) Circumstantial		The program is on a Wednesday	Today is the 19 th ; The 19 th is today
(3) Possessive		John has a car	The car is John's; John's is the car

Table 4.3.3-1 the principal types of relational process

(Based on Halliday 1985: 113)

We can note from the above that in the attributive mode, an attribute is ascribed to an entity, whereas in the identifying mode, an entity is used to identify another. According to Halliday, clauses in the attributive mode cannot be reversible, whereas those in the identifying mode can be: to him, reversibility occurs when the participants of a clause in the identifying mode are reversed, as illustrated in the above table. The reversibility of the participants is an important grammatical factor that distinguishes them from clauses of the attributive mode. With regard to the types of relational processes, the intensive type establishes a relationship of sameness between two entities; the circumstantial type defines the entity in terms of location, time, manner etc.; whilst the possessive type (as its name implies) indicates that one entity owns another.

We can explore the different types of relational process as stated above. The first type is called an Attributive relational process; and the two participants are the Carrier and the Attribute as the examples below show:

Attribute of:			
Quality (intensive)	John	is / looks	great.
Circumstance (circumstantial)	John The festival	is lasts	in the lecture theatre all day.
Possession (possessive)	The cassette John	is / belongs has	John's / to John a cassette.
	Carrier	Process	Attribute

Table 4.3.3-2 Attributes and Carriers

(Based on Halliday 1985: 113)

(i) The Intensive Attribute processes

Intensive attribute processes means 'x is a member of the class a'. In Attribute intensive processes, there are two participants these are the Attribute and the Carrier. The Attribute is a quality, classification or descriptive epithet which is assigned to a Carrier (a noun or nominal group). The commonest verb is 'be' and includes become, turn, grow, turn out, start out, end up, keep, stay, remain, seem, sound, appear, look, taste, smell, feel and stand.

(ii) The Circumstantial Attribute processes

Circumstantial relational process encodes the meaning of the circumstantial dimension: location, manner and cause. In the Attribute Circumstantial process, the Attribute is a prepositional phrase or an adverb of Location, Manner, and Cause.

(iii) The Possessive Attribute processes

The Possessive Attribute process encodes the meaning of ownership and possession between clausal participants. In Attribute Possessive, possession can be encoded through the participants. The common verbs are 'to have' and 'to belong to'

The second type is called an Identifying Relational Process. The participants are the Identified and Identifier but in grammatically, this involves Token and Value. There are also three sub types of Identifying Relational processes.

Identification by:			
token-value (intensive)	John David	is plays	the teacher Hamlet.
Circumstance (circumstantial)	Today his gold	is takes up	the 18th the entire box.
Possession (possessive)	The piano John	is owns	John's the piano.
	Identified /Value	Process	Identifier /Token

Table 4.3.3-3 Identified and Identifier

(Based on Halliday 1985: 113)

(i) The Intensive Identifying process

As Intensive Identifying process is for defining, the meaning of an Identifying Intensive that is 'x serves to define the identity of y' Defining here involves the Token which stands for what is being defined and a Value that is defined. They both are realised by a definite nominal group. The most frequently used Identifying intensive is 'be'.

The verb 'to be' may present a problem with regard to passivization. But according to Halliday, passivization of a clause with this verb follows from the reversal of the positions of *token* and *value*, which are terms which he applies to *all relational process* clauses. Passivization however, as has been stated above, can work only in the *identifying mode*, as the *token* and the *value* in the *attributive mode* cannot be reversed. Halliday's view that the verb 'to be' can be passivised is not shared by all linguists; many of them, of course, do not work with the same premises: for example, the notions of *token* and *value* (or similar notions) are not found in many other linguistic descriptions of the verb *to be* and other related verbs. Halliday (1985: 115) also points out that semantically, the token will be a sign, name, form, a holder or occupant of a Value, which gives the meaning, reference, function, status or role of the Token. Furthermore, grammatically the Token is always a Subject in an active clause and the Value is always a Subject in a passive clause.

(ii) The Circumstantial Identifying processes

Token and Value are circumstantial elements of time, place and involving people. The verb still remains intensive but the circumstance may also be expressed through the process, using the verbs: takes up, follow, cross, resemble and accompany.

(iii) Possessive Identifying processes

In Identifying possessives, possession can be expressed through participants and through the process. If the possession is expressed through participants, the intensive verb to be is used with the Token encoding as the possessor and the Value encoding as possessed. The commonest Identifying possessive process is 'to own'.

4.3.4 Behavioural Processes

They are the clauses between Material and Mental/Verbal clauses. Halliday (1985: 128) has stated that the Behavioural processes are the processes of physiological and psychological behaviour, like breathing, dreaming, smiling, and coughing. Typically, behavioral processes have only one participant that is human, 'Behaver' and are grammatically distinguishable from the Intransitive Material Process. However, Halliday (1985) pointed out that there could be some clauses where the Behavior involved two human participants, like 'kissing' i.e. Bob kisses Susan. We can probe this as "what did Bob do to Susan?" like in the Material Processes. Martin et al (1997: 109) also pointed out that Behavioral Processes are unlike Mental Processes and Verbal Processes but like the Material ones in that: (i) the unmarked representation of present time is present-in- the present and (ii) they cannot report.

4.3.5 Verbal Processes

Verbal clauses represent the processes of ‘saying’ such as asking, commanding, offering, stating and so on and the semiotic processes that are not necessarily verbal such as showing and indicating. The Verbal processes are intermediate between Mental and Material processes. There is one participant that is involved in any Verbal process; that is the Sayer. Another participant that may be involved is the Receiver: this is the participant to whom the saying is addressed. The Sayer and the Receiver are typically human. Nevertheless, Verbal processes, sometimes, do not require a conscious participant. The Sayer can be anything that puts out a signal such as a notice or a watch, a light, a guidebook and so on. The Verbal processes, in certain clauses, may be directed at, rather than addressed to another participant with a verb such as insult, praise or flatter. This participant is then called the ‘Target’.

She	praises	him	to her friend
Sayer	Process	Target	Recipient

Figure 4.3.5 Target and Recipient in a verbal process

Furthermore, in Project clauses, the content of the saying may also be construed as a participant this is called Verbiage. For example “He asked me *the hard question*”, a hard question is the Verbiage. The content of the saying may be represented in a

separate clause such as “She said *that she did not want to see him again*” the clause in Italics is the secondary clause this is called the Projected clause.

4.3.6 Existential Processes

Thompson (1996: 101) has explained the Existential processes as below:

“What is happening with Existential processes is that the speaker is renouncing the opportunity to represent the participant as involved in any going-on; and the distinctive structural pattern provides an explicit signal of this renunciation”

These processes represent that something exists or happens; for example, ‘There is a phone call for you’, ‘There seemed to be a problem’. These processes are normally recognisable because the Subject is ‘There’ and ‘Existent’ this is a group of nouns which has only one participant in the clause. These clauses have the verb ‘be’ and some other verbs expressing existence, such as arise and exist.

The processes of English language including the category meaning and the participant functions that are associated with each process have been completed. Halliday (1985: 131) has summarised the categories that have been set up, together with an informal indication of their core meaning and list of participants uniquely associated with each type as table 4.3. shows:

Process type	Category meaning	Participant
Material:	'Doing'	Actor, Goal
Action	'Doing'	
Event	'Happening'	
Behavioral	'Behaving'	Behaver
Mental:	'Sensing'	Senser, Phenomenon
Perception	'Seeing'	
Affection	'Feeling'	
Cognition	'Thinking'	
Verbal	'Saying'	Sayer, Target
Relational	'Being'	Token, Value
Attribution	'Attributing'	Carrier, Attribute
Identification	'Identifying'	Identified, Identifier
Existential	'Existing'	Existent

Table 4.3.6 Process type, their meanings and key participants

(Halliday, 1985: 131)

4.4 Beneficiary and Range

The participant functions involved in table 4.3 are directly explained with each process in the Process type above. There are other participant functions which are the 'oblique' or indirect participants. They frequently appear in a prepositional phrase and have an intermediate in terms of their closeness to the central experiential meanings

of the clause. Nevertheless, they cannot conflict with the Subject in the mood system. They are called Beneficiary and Range.

4.4.1 Beneficiary

The Beneficiary is equivalent to the direct object in traditional terms, and is defined as 'the one to or for whom the process is said to take place' (Halliday, 1985: 132). The beneficiary can appear with all processes except Existential processes, though not with all verbs within each type (Thompson, 1996: 103). It sometimes has a different label according to the process type. For example, in the Material process, the Beneficiary is either Recipient or Client. The Recipient is who the goods are given to; the Client who the services are provided for. In Verbal process, the one who is being addressed is called the 'Receiver'.

In Material processes, the Recipient and Client can appear with or without a preposition, depending on the positions in the clause. The preposition is 'to' with the Recipient and 'for' with the client; for example, 'She sent a card to me' and 'She bought a card for me', we can naturally say 'She sent me a card' and 'She bought me a card'. However, the sentence that cannot occur naturally without preposition such as 'She sent a card to Thailand', we cannot say 'She sent Thailand a card', this clause is not the Beneficiary. In Verbal processes, the 'Receiver' will appear with the preposition 'to' or without a preposition. It depends on the particular verb in the clause, such as, 'She said to me that she did not go to school yesterday' or 'She told me that she did not go to school yesterday'. In a few cases, the Beneficiary may appear in Relational processes e.g. *me* in 'It costs me a thousand baht'

4.4.2 Range

‘The Range is the element that specifies the range or scope of the process’ (Halliday, 1985: 134). The Range is not a participant but it is more likely the circumstance element disguised as a participant. (Thompson, 1996: 103) The Range can occur in Material, Behavioral, Mental and Verbal processes as shown below:

She gave *a description of the person she saw*. (Verbal process)

I speak *Thai*. (Verbal process)

They played *football* the whole afternoon. (Material process)

We were singing *folksongs*. (Behavioural)

He played *the guitar*. (Material)

We visited *the church*. (Material)

I felt *a sudden pain* in my left arm. (Mental: phenomenon = range)

Range seems to be like Goal in Material processes. Thompson (1996: 104) has pointed out “Range is a rather slippery category; but, as a simple rule of thumb, where you feel that the concept of Goal is inappropriate in clauses with Material or Behavioral processes, you may well decide that you have Range”

4.5 Circumstantial elements

Circumstantial elements closely associated with the processes and TRANSITIVITY. To explore the circumstances, we have to divide them into categories. One way of exploring the possible categories is by looking at the questions to which the

circumstantial elements provide answers. According to Halliday (1985: 137) “the principal types of circumstantial element in English are as follows: Extent and Location in time and space, including abstract space; Manner (means, quality and comparison); Cause (reason, purpose and behalf) Accompaniment; Matter; Role”. However, Halliday (1994:151) has proposed nine main types of circumstantial elements:

1. Location
2. Extent
3. Manner
4. Cause
5. Contingency
6. Accompaniment
7. Role
8. Matter
9. Angle

4.5.1 Location and Extent

Halliday (1994: 137) has explained these two circumstantial elements together in the table below.

	Spatial		Temporal	
Extent (including interval)	Distance <i>walk (for) seven miles</i> <i>stop every two laps</i>		Duration <i>stay (for) two hours</i> <i>pause every five minutes</i> Frequency <i>punch two times</i>	
Location	Place	Rest <i>work in the kitchen</i> <i>study in Tasmania</i>	Time	Rest <i>lecture at noon</i> <i>leave on Monday</i>
		Motion <i>get out of the kitchen</i> <i>go to Tasmania</i>		Motion <i>wait until Tuesday</i> <i>have worked since Monday</i>

Table 4.5.1 Location and Extent

(Based on Halliday, 1985:137)

The interrogative forms for extent are ‘How far?’, ‘How long?’, ‘How many?’ and ‘How many times?’ The structure is a nominal group with definite or indefinite quantifier such as “two days” and “many days”. The most usual preposition for extent is ‘for’.

The interrogative forms for Location are ‘Where?’ and ‘When?’. The structure is an adverbial group or preposition phrase such as “in Tasmania”, “long ago”, and “Tuesday morning”.

4.5.2 Manner

The circumstantial element of Manner comprises of three sub categories: Means, Quality, and Comparison.

- Means

“Means refers to the means whereby a process takes place” (Halliday, 1985: 139)

Means basically answers the question ‘What with?’ and ‘How?’ and is expressed by a prepositional phrase with the preposition ‘by’ and ‘with’; for example, “By car”, “By chance”, and “She writes the report with a pencil”

- Quality

Quality is expressed by an adverbial group which comprises mostly of the ‘-ly’ form of adverbs. The interrogative is ‘How?’ or ‘How...?’; for example, “It was raining heavily yesterday”.

- Comparison

The interrogative of a circumstantial expression of Comparison is ‘What...like?’ Comparison is expressed by a preposition phrase with like and unlike; for example, “Her shape is like a pear”.

4.5.3 Cause

The circumstantial element of Cause comprises of three subcategories: Reason, Purpose and Behalf.

- Reason

The interrogative of a circumstantial expression of Reason consists of WH- forms: ‘Why?’ and ‘How?’ This is typically expressed by the preposition ‘though’ and complex prepositions such as ‘because of’, ‘as a result of’ and ‘thanks to’. It represents the reason for which a process takes place.

“We have to be there early *as it is Friday*.”

- Purpose

The interrogative of a circumstantial expression of Purpose is ‘What for?’ Purpose is typically expressed by the preposition phrase with ‘for’ and with complex prepositions such as ‘for the purpose of’ and ‘in the hope of’. It represents the purpose for which an action takes place.

“He popped over *for a chat*.”

- Behalf

The interrogative of a circumstantial expression of Purpose is ‘Who for?’ Behalf is typically expressed by a preposition phrase ‘for’ and with complex prepositions such as ‘for the sake of’ and ‘on behalf of’. It represents a person on whose behalf or for whose sake the action is undertaken.

“He’s doing the shopping *for me*.”

4.5.4 Contingency

The interrogative of a circumstantial expression of Contingency is ‘If what?’ Contingency is typically expressed by preposition “Despite’ and with complex prepositions such as ‘in case of’, ‘in the absence of’ and ‘in spite of’.

“Despite his eagerness he’s unlikely to succeed.”

4.5.5 Accompaniment

Accompaniment circumstantial answer the question ‘Who/ What else? and Who/What with? It is expressed by prepositional phrases with prepositions such as with, without, besides and instead of; for example, “She is coming to the theatre with her sister”.

4.5.6 Matter

This circumstantial element has particular links with Verbal processes. It corresponds to the interrogative ‘What about?’ and is expressed by prepositional phrases with prepositions: ‘about’, with reference to and concerning as in the example below:

“I’ll bet he learns more about you than you learn about him”

“We are talking about the report”

It sometimes appears with mental processes such as “Please, don’t worry about me!”

4.5.7 Role

Role corresponds to the interrogative ‘What as?’ and represents the meaning of ‘be’ in the form of circumstance. The preposition ‘as’ and other complex prepositions such as “by way of”, ‘in the role of’, ‘in the form of’, ‘in the shape of’ and ‘in the guise of’; for example, “He is coming back here again *in the role of* detective”. Role also has a small sub-category that is product circumstantial answering the question ‘What into?’; for example, “They’ve turned the house *into* an office.”.

4.5.8 Angle

Angle corresponds to the interrogative ‘From what point of view?’ and realises especially by ‘according to’ or just ‘to’ such as “To a great mind, nothing is little”.

The circumstantial elements that Halliday (1994) has pointed out in ‘An Introduction to Function Grammar’ have now been completed. Butt et al (1994:65) also summarised the circumstantial elements as in the table below:

Type of Circumstance	Answers the question	Examples
Extent	How long? How far? How many times?	(for) two hours (for) two miles five times a week
Location	Where? When?	In the yard After dinner
Contingency	If what?	In case of rain In spite of rain In the absence of fine weather
Cause	Why? What for?	Because of the rain For a rest

Accompaniment	With whom? And who else? But not who?	With a friend As well as Henry Instead of Michael
Matter	What about?	About suffering
Role	What as?	As a clown
Manner Means Quality comparison	How? What with? How? What like?	By car, with a stick Quietly Like a trooper
Angle	According to whom?	To Mary According to Luke

Table 4.5.8 Circumstantial elements

(Butt et al 1994: 65)

4.6 Summary

This chapter has been concerned with the basic concept of TRANSITIVITY. Some of the most essential notions that are related to the description of the experiential grammar: process, participants and circumstance have been provided. Also made clear are significants concerning about the terminologies that are used in the following chapters. The analysis chapters range from chapter v to chapter ix. A system of PROCESS TYPE in Thai which recognises three major primary options is processed as follows: Doing processes, Projecting processes, and Being processes according to Halliday's model of experience. In chapter v — an exploration of the Doing processes in Thai is discussed.

CHAPTER V

The Doing Process in Thai Language

5.1 Introduction

To explore differences in process type are what we mean by differences in TRANSITIVITY. Each process type has associated with it certain functional participant roles. Any process type may also have circumstantial elements in it as has been pointed out in chapter IV- the system of TRANSITIVITY. The aim of this chapter is to explore the grammar of the processes of doing in Thai language, particularly in material and behaviour process. , Before addressing these issues, it is helpful to introduce some notes of caution.

Since the description of the TRANSITIVITY system in Vietnamese presented in this study is written in English and, more importantly, is based on the Systemic Functional model, reference is made, in particular, to the works of Halliday. Apart from this, the writings of other Systemic Functional grammarians such as Berry (1975), Butler (1985), Fawcett (1980, 1984, 1987), Eggins (1994), Hasan (1994, 1996), Martin (1984, 1990, 1992a), Matthiessen (1995), Locke (1996) and others are also taken as a point of reference. Since all these studies are written in English and most of them are about the grammar of the English language; and this study has been written in English, an inevitable corollary is that in describing the grammar of Thai, instead of coining new terms, we shall be employing the terminology of the English language

labels which Halliday and other Systemic Functional grammarians of English have used.

5.2 Material processes

According to Halliday (1985: 103), Material processes are processes of 'Doing'. They express the notion that some entity 'does' something - which may be done to some entity. The definition of the Material process is that it is a process that typically construes some kind of physical action or happening in the physical universe (cf. Halliday in Kress 1976, Halliday 1994, Eggins 1994, Matthiessen 1995).

5.2.1 Identifying the Material Process: Recognition Criteria

At the lexicalgrammatical level, the Material process in Thai language differs from other process options, particularly the mental and the relational ones, by the following recognition criteria:

- (i) Verbs in Material processes
- (ii) Number and nature of participants
- (iii) The probe.

Each of the above characteristics is discussed in some detail below.

5.2.1.1 Verbs in Material processes

Verbs or processes in these Material processes in Thai are described as some sort of action or happening which is usually concrete, physical, and tangible; for example,

‘ทำอาหาร’ (cook)

‘ให้’ (give)

‘ไป’ (go)

‘เตะ’ (kick)

‘ทำ’ (make)

‘เอา’ (take)

‘เล่น’ (play)

‘วิ่ง’ (run)

‘เดิน’ (walk)

‘กระโดด’ (jump)

‘ถือ’ (carry)

‘ทดสอบ’ (test)

‘จากไป’ (leave)

‘หลีกเลี่ยง’ (avoid)

‘เปิด’ (open)

‘ปิด’ (close)

‘ตี’ (hit)

‘ต่อย’ (punch)

‘ให้’ (give)

‘จ่าย’ (pay)

‘จับ’ (catch)

‘เคลื่อนย้าย’ (move)

‘ปีน’ (climb)

5.2.1.2 Number and Nature of Participants

The Material processes may involve one participant that is the Actor and two participants that are Actor and Goal. For example,

Participant:

แดง	ไป	ออสเตรเลีย
deang	pai	Australia
Deang	goes	to Australia
Actor	Process: Material	

Deang goes to Australia.

Participants:

แดง	เปิด	หน้าต่าง
deang	perd	na tang
Deang	opens	the windows.
Actor	Process: Material	Goal

Deang opens the windows.

Actor is the Subject of the active clause as the example above but Goal will take turns to be the Subject in the passive clause as in the example below.

หน้าต่าง	ถูกเปิด	โดยแดง
na tang	thuk perd	doy deang
The window	is opened	by Deang
Actor	Process: Material	Goal

The window is opened by Deang.

There are sometimes three role participants in material process such as “Deang gives the present to Dam”. These are Actor, Goal and Beneficiary which is referred to as an indirect object complement in the clause. The Beneficiary is the process in the clause in which this Beneficiary occurs is material effective dispositive benefactive.

แดง	ให้	ของขวัญ	แก่ดำ
deang	hai	khongkhwan	kae dam
Deang	gives	the present	to Dam
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Beneficiary: Recipient

Deang gives the present to Dam.

แดง	ทำอาหาร	มื้อเย็น	สำหรับดำ
deang	tam arharn	mue yen	sam rap dam
Deang	cooks	dinner	for Dam
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Beneficiary: Client

Deang cooks dinner for Dam.

There are both semantic and lexicogrammatical criteria for distinguishing the Beneficiary from other participant roles, particularly from the Goal and the Range. Semantically, if the Goal is defined as ‘the entity to which the process is extended’, the Range, as ‘the scope or domain over which the process takes place’ (cf. Halliday 1994: 146-49), the Beneficiary can be broadly defined as ‘the one for whom or to whom the process is said to take place’ (Halliday 1994: 144, see also Eggins 1994). Lexicogrammatically, Beneficiary differs from the Goal and the Range in a number of criteria. The first criterion is that the Beneficiary may be realised either as a circumstance or as a participant in English. Nevertheless, the Beneficiary may be realised as only a circumstance.

Beneficiary: a circumstance

แดง	ส่ง	การ์ด(ใบหนึ่ง)	ถึงดำ
deang	song	card	tung dam
Deang	sends	a card	to Dam
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Beneficiary

Deang sends a card to Dam.

It would sound odd when realising as a participant. For example:

Beneficiary: a participant

*แดง	ส่ง	ดำ	การ์ด(ใบหนึ่ง)
deang	song	dam	card
Deang	sends	Dam	a card
Actor	Process: Material	Beneficiary	Goal

Deang sends Dam a card.

The second criterion is that, the Beneficiary is typically human but it does not mean that the Beneficiary function cannot be assigned to an inanimate entity, although this is not typical, it is permissible; for example,

แดง	พรม	น้ำ	ดอกไม้ของเขา
deang	prom	nam	dok mai khong khao
Deang	sprinkles	some water	his flowers
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Beneficiary

Deang sprinkles some water on his flowers. / Deang sprinkles his flowers with some water.

Recipient and Client

When the systemic benefactive feature is selected, this function as an entry point for a more delicate systemic choice these are the options in the system: 'Recipient' and 'Client' as the examples below show:

แดง	ให้	ของขวัญ	แก่ดำ
deang	hai	khong khwan	kae dam
Deang	gives	the present	to Dam
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Beneficiary: Recipient

Deang gives the present to Dam.

แดง	ทำอาหาร	มื้อเย็น	สำหรับดำ
deang	tam arham	mue yen	sumrap dam
Deang	cooks	dinner	for Dam
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Beneficiary: Client

Deang cooks dinner for Dam.

Semantically, the Recipient is ‘one that goods are given to’ while the Client is ‘one that services are done to’ (Halliday 1994: 145). Lexicogrammatically, the Recipient is different from the Client by two criteria. First of all, while in the clause of the recipient type the Recipient can occur naturally with the preposition ‘แก่’(to), in the post-process position, in the clause of the Client type the Client can occur naturally with the preposition ‘สำหรับ’ (for) in the same position as in the examples above.

In English language, the preposition ‘to’ is obligatory. Thus, it can either take the form:

Deang	gives	the present	to Dam
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Beneficiary: Recipient

Or

Deang	gives	Dam	the present
Actor	Process: Material	Beneficiary: Recipient	Goal

On the other hand, in Thai language, the clause can stand without the preposition (to) and (for) such as แดงให้การ์ด (แก่)ดำ (Deang gives a card to Dam) but it may sound odd if we make a clause *แดงให้ดำการ์ด (Deang gives Dam a card).

It is also possible to make the Beneficiary as the Subject of the clause. For example,

ดำ	ได้รับ	ของขวัญ	จาก	แดง
dam	dai rap	khong khwan	jark	deang
Dam	is given	a present	from	Deang
Beneficiary: Recipient	Process: Material	Goal	Actor	

Dam is given a present by Deang.

ดำ	ได้รับการทำอาหาร	มื้อเย็น	ให้	โดยแดง
dam	dai rap karn tam arharn	mue yen	hai	doy deang
Dam	was cooked	dinner	to	by Deang
Beneficiary: Client	Process: Material	Goal		Actor

Dam is cooked dinner by Deang.

However, in the clause ‘ดำได้รับการทำอาหารมือเย็นให้โดยแดง’ would sound odd for Thai people although it is correct.

The second criterion for distinguishing the Recipient from the Client concerns whether or not either function can occur naturally without ‘แก่’ (to) when it is conflated with the Subject. This criterion may occur in both English and Thai.

ดำ	ได้รับ	ของขวัญ	จาก	แดง
dam	dai rap	khongkhwan	jark	deang
Dam	Was given	a present	(from) by	Deang
Beneficiary: Recipient	Process: Material	Goal		Actor

Dam was given a present by Deang

On the other hand, it would sound odd when we omit preposition ‘แก่’ (to) in the Client/Subject clause in Thai clause such as:

*ดำ	ได้รับการทำอาหาร	มือเย็น	โดยแดง
dam	dai rap karn tam ar harn	mue yen	doy deang
Dam	is cooked	dinner	by Deang
Beneficiary: Client	Process: Material	Goal	Actor

Dam is cooked dinner by Deang.

The other participant that Halliday states is the Range. Halliday calls it “the less independent participant” and he also suggests that a Range specifies one of these two things:

- (i) It is a restatement or continuation of the process itself

แดง	กำลังร้องเพลง	เพลงหนึ่ง
deang	gam lung rong pleang	pleang nung
Deang	is singing	a song.
Actor	Process: Material	Range

Deang is singing a song.

- (ii) It expresses the extent or range of the process

แดง	กำลังเล่น	ฟุตบอล
deang	gam lung len	foot ball
Deang	is playing	football.
Actor	Process: Material	Range

Deang is playing football

Range is quite odd if it becomes a Subject in English language such as “The blood was given by him, wasn’t it?” Nevertheless, It is common when it occurs in a Range – passive with specific Actors that are rare such as ‘ภูเขาไม่เคยถูกปีน’ (This mountain has never been climbed) Range cannot be probed by do to or do with.

Range is an additional participant in the material middle clause. To compare the two clauses below, there is a distinctive notion of the Actor, Process and Goal that supposes to be the Range.

แดง	เล่น	เกมส์
deang	len	game
Deang	plays	game
Actor	Process: Material	Range

Deang plays game.

แดง	เตะ	หมา
deang	tae	ma
Deang	kicks	a dog
Actor	Process: Material	Goal

Deang kicks a dog

It would certainly sound odd if we probe it as ‘แดงทำอะไรกับเกม’ (what does Deang do to the game?) and answer is ‘เขาเล่นมัน’ (He plays it.) Although (game) in the example above is treated as if it is a separate participant in the lexicogrammar, semantically it is not separate from the Process ‘เล่น’ (play) (cf. Halliday 1994: 148; Eggins 1994). In fact, a comparison of the relation between the Material process, ‘เล่น’ (play) and ‘เกม’ (game) is closer than ‘เตะ’ (kick) and ‘หมา’ (dog).

Matthiessen (1995) Halliday (1994) and Eggins (1994) state the classification of that Range such that the Range may be approached from two distinct directions: (a) Their logico-semantic relation to the Process and (b) The distinctive features which distinguish one class of Range from another

Range in Thai language can be classified into (i) The Non-autonomous Range and (ii) The Autonomous Range as discussed below:

(i) The Non-autonomous Range

The Non-autonomous Range is the type of Range that does not exist independently of the Process. This type of Range is a kind of co-extension or nominalisation of the Process. This is a kind of Range that is called in Traditional Grammar cognate objects such as sing a song, play a game. The object of the verb is derived directly from the verbal meaning itself. (Eggin, 1994) Take these clauses below as an example:

แดง	กำลังร้องเพลง	เพลง
deang	gam lung rong pleang	pleang
Deang	is singing	a song
Actor	Process: Material	Range/ Medium

Deang is singing a song.

แดง	กำลังเล่น	ฟุตบอล
deang	gam lung len	football
Deang	is playing	football.
Actor	Process: Material	Range/ Medium

Deang is playing football.

Both ‘ฟุตบอล’ (football) and ‘เพลง’ (a song) are Ranges but football is clearly not an entity; there is no such thing as football other than act of playing it. (Halliday, 1994)

On the other hand, ‘sing a song’ is different, ‘song’ is defined as ‘the act of singing’ in the dictionary. The other feature of the Non-autonomous Range in Thai is that the cognate noun which functions as the Range does not occur by itself in the clause. It is found to co-occur with an epithet and a classifier as Halliday (1985: 135) states “the structure enables us to specify further the number of kind of processes that take place.” The process Range of the clause ‘แดงกำลังร้องเพลง’ (Deang is singing a song) is as follows:

Specific: quantity

แดง	ร้องเพลง	สอง	เพลง
Deang	rong	song	pleang
Deang	sings	two	songs
Actor	Process: Material	Range/ Medium	

Deang sings two songs.

Specific: class

แดง	กำลังร้องเพลง	ไทย	หลายเพลง
deang	gam lung rong pleang	thai	lai pleang
Deang	is singing	Thai	songs
Actor	Process: Material	Range/ Medium	

Deang is singing Thai songs.

Specific: quality

แดง	กำลังร้องเพลง	เพราะๆเพลงหนึ่ง
deang	gam lung rong pleang	prowprow pleang nung
Deang	is singing	a nice song.
Actor	Process: Material	Range/ Medium

Deang is singing a nice song.

(ii) The Autonomous Range

The Autonomous Range, on the other hand, refers to some entity that exists independently of the process. Halliday (1985) states that this Range expresses the process itself; and it also indicates the domain over which the process takes place.

Take the clauses below as an example:

แดง	ปีน	ภูเขา
deang	pean	phu khao
Deang	climbs	the mountain.
Actor	Process: Material	Range/ Medium

Deang climbs the mountain.

แดง	เล่น	กีตาร์
deang	len	guitar
Deang	plays	the guitar
Actor	Process: Material	Range/ Medium

Deang plays the guitar.

In these two clauses, the Range ‘ภูเขา’ (the mountain) and the ‘กีตาร์’ (guitar) exist independently of the act of climbing and playing. In short, they both specify the domain over which processes of ‘กำลังปีน’ (climbing) and ‘กำลังเล่น’ (playing) take place. Nevertheless, the difference between the two clauses is that the mountain does exist whether anyone climbs it or not; whereas, the guitar exists for the purpose of being played and would not exist otherwise. In other words, ‘ภูเขา’ (the mountains) is really a restatement of the process of climbing. We cannot have mountains unless we climb them. Verbs like this can be collapsed into one single process such as ‘แดงกำลังปีน’ (Deang is climbing).

5.2.1.3 The probe.

This is the distinction between the two notions ‘Doing’ and ‘Happening’ in the Material process. ‘Doing’ refers to the perspective taken from the point of view of the Actor; while, ‘Happening’ refers to the perspective taken from the point of view of the Goal. For the perspective of ‘doing’, this can be probed as ‘แดงทำอะไรดำ’ (‘what did Deang do to Dam?’); whereas, the perspective of ‘happening’, can be probed as ‘เกิดอะไรขึ้นกับดำ’ (‘what happened to Dam?’)

5.3 Two Perspectives on voice in Thai: ERGATIVITY and TRANSITIVITY

According to Halliday (1995), the Transitive and the Ergative are widely distributed; possibly all languages display both, in different mixtures, with perhaps one or the other as the more dominant. Thai is like English language, the Transitive system realises a Process and Extension model. It is an Intransitive clause when the action ends with the Actor as the structural configuration Actor^Process such as in the example below:

แดง	ว่ายน้ำ
deang	wai nam
Deang	swims
Actor	Process: Material

Deang swims

The action can also be extended to or directs itself on to a Goal, it, then, is called a Transitive clause. The structural configuration of a Transitive clause is

Actor^Process^Goal, where Goal is to be interpreted as the participant being affected by the process such as in the example below:

แดง	เตะ	ดำ
deang	tae	dam
Deang	kicks	Dam
Actor	Process: Material	Goal

Deang kicks Dam

However, it is quite different with the Ergative, the process that may happen by itself or be caused to happen. According to Halliday (1994), the Ergative is typically generised and cuts across the various process types. Davidse (1992: 109) states that the Ergativity system is an INSTIGATION OF THE PROCESS model. There is one participant that is the key figure in the process that is the ‘Medium’.Halliday (1994: 163) suggests the word Medium for the entity through the medium of which the process comes into existence. A clause is called ‘middle’ if the process is presented as ‘internally instigated’ or ‘self-engendering’ (Halliday 1994: 164): only the process and the key participant are expressed in it. The structural configuration of the Middle clause is Medium ^ Process such as in the example below:

น้ำแข็ง	ละลาย
nam khank	lalai
The ice	melts
Medium	Process: middle

The ice melts.

On the other hand, if the process is represented as ‘externally instigated’, a clause is effective: it is presented as if there is an external Agent, a participant functioning as an external cause that causes the process to happen. The effective clauses have the structural configuration as ‘Agent^Process^Medium’. The clause above can be changed to be an effective clause as follows:

พระอาทิตย์	ละลาย	น้ำแข็ง
pra ar tit	lalai	nam khank
The sun	melts	the ice
Agent	Process: effective	Medium

The sun melts the ice.

It is also possible to use the passive in a clause such as ‘น้ำแข็งถูกทำให้ละลาย’ (the ice is melted). This is because we can still probe by ‘Who by’ or ‘What by’. Thus unlike the Transitive model, the Ergative form of organisation is based on ‘causation’. Its basic question is ‘whether the cause is external to the action or not’ (Halliday 1968, 1970; see also Matthiessen 1995). The two perspectives on material processes look at the clause from opposite ends. From the TRANSITIVITY perspective, the Actor does something, which may or may not affect another participant, the Goal. From the Ergative perspective, the Medium hosts a process which may or may not be caused by another participant, the Agent. As Halliday (1985: 149) also points out “probably all TRANSITIVITY systems, in all languages, are some blend of these two semantic models of processes, the Transitive and the Ergative. The Transitive is a linear interpretation

but the Ergative is nuclear.” Halliday (1994: 165) states that all processes of any type can be usefully analysed from either perspective as the following schema shows, representing the two alternative models of TRANSITIVITY and Ergative in Thai:

Transitive patterning

intran.	Ac ^ Pro		น้ำแข็งละลาย (The ice melts.)
tran.	Ac ^ Pro	± Go	พระอาทิตย์ละลายน้ำแข็ง (The sun melts the ice.)

Ergative patterning

middle		Med ^ Pro	น้ำแข็งละลาย (The ice melts.)
effective	Ag ±	Pro ^ Med	พระอาทิตย์ละลายน้ำแข็ง (The sun melts the ice.)

Figure 5.3. Transitive and Ergative Patterning in Thai

5.4 Summary

This section has been concerned with the Material TRANSITIVITY of Thai language. We have analysed the Material process of Thai language using the Hallidayan theory. We have established the criteria for identifying the Material process as Halliday did with English language. The criteria consisted of (i) Verbs in Material processes, (ii) Number and nature of participants and (iii) The Probe. Also explored was the main perspective of voice on Thai: the Ergative and the Transitive. The remainder of this chapter looks at the Behaviour process as it is part of the doing process in Thai.

5.5 The Behavioural Process

In this section, we study the Behaviour process which Halliday (1985, 1994, and elsewhere) and Eggins (1994) describe as processes semantically in English which are a 'half-way house' between the Material and the Mental processes. In short, the meanings of these processes are grammatically midway between the Material and the Mental ones.

5.6 Criteria for Identifying the Behavioural Process

The Behavioural processes are explained according to these the criteria below:

- (i) The Characteristics of the Behavioral processes
- (ii) The Number and nature of participants
- (iii) The probe.

5.6.1 The Characteristics of the Behavioral processes

There are a number of functional grammarians who point out the characteristics of the Behaviour process as a mix of process between the Material process and the Mental process as Halliday (1985, 1994) states in the book *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. Nevertheless, Martin et al (1997) describe these processes as grammatically mixed with Material on the one hand and Mental/Verbal on the other. According to Eggins (1994: 250), "They are in part about action, but it is action that

has to be experienced by a conscious being”. The processes concern physiological and psychological behaviour. The verbs in Thai language are as follows:

‘ดู’	(watch)
‘ฝัน’	(dream)
‘คิด’	(think)
‘นั่งสมาธิ’	(meditate)
‘กังวล’	(worry)
‘หัวเราะ’	(laugh)
‘ยิ้ม’	(smile)
‘จ้อง’	(stare)
‘ชิม’	(taste)
‘หายใจ’	(breath)
‘ถอนหายใจ’	(sigh)

‘ดม’	(sniff)
‘ยิ้มกว้าง’	(grin)
‘สูดทางจมูก’	(sniff)
‘ไอ’	(cough)
‘โง่’	(gawk)
‘ขมวดคิ้ว’	(frown)
‘ทำหน้าตาบูดเบี้ยว’	(grimace)
‘ทำหน้าบึ้ง’	(scowl)
‘ปากย่นแบบไม่พอใจ’	(pout)
‘ใคร่ครวญ’	(think about)
‘ร้องไห้’	(cry)
‘สะดุ้ง’	(twitch)
‘สั่นเทา’	(shiver)

‘สั่น’ (tremble)

‘เหงื่อออก’ (sweat)

‘จูบ’ (kiss)

‘กอด’ (hug)

‘โอบกอด’ (embrace)

‘เต้น’ (dance)

‘เล่น’ (play)

‘หอบ, หายใจไม่ออก’ (gasp)

‘พูดตะกุกตะกัก, พูดติดอ่าง’ (stutter)

‘คุย’ (chat)

‘พูด’ (talk)

‘นินทา’ (gossip)

‘หาว’ (yawn)

‘ร้องเพลง’ (sing)

‘คุกเข่า’ (kneel)

‘นอน’ (sleep)

These Behavioural processes above can also be classified with respect to the domain they share with other process types: Para-Material, Para-Verbal and Para-Mental; for example:

(i) **Para-Material:** processes which are typically realised by verbs e.g. ไอ (cough), หาว (yawn), ร้องเพลง (sing), หายใจ (breathe), คุกเข่า (kneel), นอน (sleep)

(ii) **Para-Verbal:** processes which are typically realised by verbs e.g.

พูดตะกุกตะกัก, พูดติดอ่าง (stutter), คุย (chat), พูด (talk), นินทา (gossip)

(iii) **Para-Mental** which covers three subcategories:

Cognitive: Processes which are typically realised by verbs such as คิด (think), ฝัน (dream), นั่งสมาธิ (meditate) and กังวล (worry).

Affective: Processes which are typically realised by verbs such as หัวเราะ (laugh), ร้องไห้ (cry), and ยิ้ม (smile).

Perceptive: Processes which are typically realised by verbs such as ฟัง (listen), ดู (look), ดมกลิ่น (sniff/smell) and ชิม (taste).

Behavioral processes are not like Mental and Verbal processes but like material processes in two ways. The first one is the unmarked representation of present time this is present-in the Present or the Present Continuous tenses. It is possible to say ‘แดงกำลังร้องไห้’ (Deang is crying) or ‘ดำกำลังร้องเพลง’ (Dam is singing). The second one shows that the Behavioural processes cannot report or quote things like “Deang is listening [that] Dam’s story”.

5.6.2 Number and Nature of Participant

The majority of Behavioural clauses have only one participant which is called the Behaver. The Behaver is typically a conscious being. However, they may contain a second participant, ‘a Behaviour’, This role is referred to as the Phenomenon. Lexicogrammatically, the typical structure of a Behavioural process in Thai can be represented as follows:

Behaver^Process:Behavioural^('Phenomenon') ('Circumstance') ('Behaviour')

Phenomenon behaves somewhat like a Goal at which the behavioural action is said to be targeted such as แดงจ้องดำ (literally, Deang stares Dam (Deang is looking at Dam)), แดงดูโทรทัศน์ (literally, Deang watches television (He is watching the television)). Moreover, like the Goal in the Material process, in many of the Behavioural processes the Phenomenon can be made the Subject. For example:

แดง	ดมกลิ่น	อาหาร
deang	dom glin	ar harn
Deang	sniffs	food
Behaver	Process: Behavioural	Phenomenon

Deang sniffs food.

อาหาร	ถูกดมกลิ่น	โดยแดง
ar harn	thuk dom glin	doy deang
food	is being sniffed	by Deang
Phenomenon	Process: Behavioural	Behaver

Food is sniffed by Deang.

Circumstantial elements which often occur in the Behavioural processes are Manner and Cause.

แดง	หัวเราะ	เสียงดัง
deang	hua roa	sieang dung
Deang	laughs	loudly
Behaver	Process: Behavioural	Circumstance: Manner

Deang laughs loudly.

แดง	ร้องไห้	ด้วยความผิดหวัง
deang	rong hai	doey kham pid wang
Deang	cries	with frustration
Behaver	Process: Behavioural	Circumstance: Cause

Deang cries with frustration.

According to Halliday (1985: 129), he points out that in some cases there are two human participants like the Material process and in the Behavioural process such as:

แดง	กำลังจูบ	ดำ
deang	gam lung jup	dam
Deang	is kissing	Dam
Behaver	Process:behavioural	Behaviour

Deang is kissing Dam.

5.6.3 The Probe

They can be probed in the normal way like both the Material middle and the Material effective processes. For example, it is possible in Thai to probe the clause “They dance” by asking:

พวกเขา	ทำ	อะไร?
puak khao	tam	arai
They	do	What?

What do they do?

The appropriate answer would be

‘พวกเขาเต้นรำ’ (They dance).

Similarly, a clause such as แดงจ้องดำ (literally, Deang stares Dam (Deang looks at Dam)), can be probed by asking either

แดง	ทำ	อะไร	ดำ?
deang	tam	arai	dam
Deang	do	what	Dam?

What does Deang do to Dam?

or

อะไร	เกิดขึ้น	กับ	ดำ?
arai	gerd khun	gap	dam
happen	what	to	Dam?

What happens to Dam?

เกิด	อะไร	ขึ้นกับ	ดำ?
gerd	arai	khun gap	dam
happen	what	to	Dam?

What happens to Dam?

5.7 Types of Behavioural Process

Behavioural processes in Thai are like English in that they can be tentatively classified into: Intro-active and Inter-active Behavioural processes (cf. Matthiessen 1995). The difference between these two subtypes is that the Behaver in an Inter-active process may be realised by a nominal group complex where the two (or more) nominal groups are logically related by extension such as ดำและแดง (Dam and Deang) in the clause below.

ดำ	และ	แดง	ดู	โทรทัศน์
dam	lae	deang	do	tor ra tat
Dam	and	Deang	watch	television
Behaver			Pro:behavioural	Phenomenon

Dam and Deang watch television.

In other words ดำและแดง (Dam and Deang) in this clause are co-participants of the same process. This also explains the possibility of the choice of Circumstance of an accompaniment such as

แดง	เต้น	กับ	ดำ
deang	ten	gap	dam
Deang	dances	with	Dam
Behaviour	Process: behavioural	Circumstance: accompaniment	

Deang dances with Dam.

5.8 Summary

This section has been concerned with the Behaviour TRANSITIVITY of Thai language. We have analysed the Behaviour process of Thai language according to Hallidayan theory. We have also established the criteria for identifying the Behaviour process, such as, Verbs, Number and Nature of Participants and the Probe.

5.9 Concluding remarks

This chapter has been concerned with the grammar of the doing process in Thai language. We have grouped the doing processes as Hallidayan theory theses are the Material and the Behaviour process. We have made an attempt to establish definition and recognition criteria for both processes. Material processes typically construe 'Doings' or 'Happenings' and are realised by the structure "Actor ^ Process: Material ^ ('Goal')"; and Behavioural processes construe 'physiological and psychological behaviour' and are realised by the structure "Behaver ^ Process: Behavioural ^ ('Phenomenon')". We have identified the distinguished features of each process. However, there are some features that they share together because the Behaviour process is midway between the Material and Mental process and Halliday suggests that the Behaviour process is close to the Material and the Mental process but distinct from them in certain respects. We now turn to the next chapter: The Projecting Processes in Thai.

CHAPTER VI

The Projecting Processes in Thai Language

6.1. Introduction

Besides, the use of Material and Behaviour processes in the concrete processes of Doing, speakers of a language also select other process options to talk about what they sense - think, feel and what people say to each other. Halliday (1994) explains this type of process as the 'goings-on' in the inner world or processes of human like consciousness. He also refers to these processes as the Projecting processes. These Projecting processes are explored in this chapter.

6.2. Mental processes

The Mental processes are concerned with activities of the mind and human consciousness such as รัก (love),เกลียด (hate), ชอบ (like), รู้ (know) etc. Matthiessen (1995: 256) points out that Mental processes can be broadly defined as those that typically construe the inner world of consciousness or 'sensing of various kinds'.

6.3 Identifying the Mental Process: Recognition Criteria

There are a number of criteria that can distinguish the Mental processes from the other processes, especially the Material processes in the following respects:

- (i) The mental processes in Thai
- (ii) Choice of unmarked Present tense
- (iii) The Probe
- (iv) The Number of Participants
- (v) The Nature of Senser
- (vi) The Nature of Phenomenon
- (vii) Strong collocation of Mental process with Circumstance: Manner: degree
- (viii) Reversibility
- (ix) Projection

Each respect above is discussed in the following sections:

6.3.1 The Mental Process in Thai

In this section, we explore the verbs that make up the Mental processes in Thai language. As we have stated above that the Mental processes are concerned with something that goes on in the internal world of the mind. There are many verbs which refer to these Mental processes. The verbs are as follows:

‘ชอบ’ (like)

‘เกลียด’ (hate)

‘รัก’	(love)
‘รู้’	(know)
‘เห็น’	(see)
‘ได้ยิน’	(hear)
‘พอใจ’	(please)
‘เชื่อ’	(believe)
‘เสียใจ’	(regret)
‘รู้สึก’	(feel)
‘ตระหนัก’	(realize)
‘เข้าใจ’	(understand)
‘ตัดสินใจ’	(decide)
‘ต้องการ’	(want)
‘คิด’	(think)
‘กังวล’	(worry)
‘ลืม’	(forget)
‘กลัว’	(scare)
‘ประหลาดใจ’	(surprise)

‘ชื่นชม’	(admire)
‘สงสัย’	(wonder)
‘สนุก’	(enjoy)
‘ทำให้ว้าวุ่น’	(upset)
‘พูดให้เชื่อ’	(convince)
‘ทำให้หง’	(puzzle)
‘ผิดหวัง’	(disappoint)
‘หวัง’	(hope)
‘ฝัน’	(dream)
‘คิดถึง’	(miss)
‘จำ’	(remember)
‘ลืม’	(forget)
‘ตั้งใจ’	(determine)
‘เกลียดชัง’	(detest)

6.3.2 Choice of Unmarked Present Tense

Halliday (1985: 109) states that one of the distinctions between the Material and the Mental processes is that the unmarked Present Tense in the English language is one of the significant things that make the two processes different. In the Mental processes, the unmarked Present Tense is the Simple Present. For example:

แดง	รู้จัก	บ้าน	ของ	ดำ
deang	roojuk	barn	khong	dam
Deang	knows	house	of	Dam

(Deang knows Dam's house.)

ลักษณะ	โดดเด่น	ของ	แดง	คือ	(แดง)	ชอบ	หมา
laksana	dodden	khong	deang	kue	deang	shop	ma
Character	distinctive	of	deang	is	Deang	likes	dogs

(Deang's distinctive character is he likes dogs.)

It would sound odd if we used the Present Continuous in those clauses. For example:

*แดง	กำลังรู้จัก	บ้าน	ของ	ดำ
Deang	kam lung roo jug	barn	khong	Dam
Deang	knowing	house	of	Dam

(*Deang is knowing dam's house)

*ลักษณะ	โดดเด่น	ของ	แดง	คือ	แดง	กำลังชอบ	หมา
laksana	dodden	khong	Deang	kue	Deang	kamlungshop	ma
Character	distinctive	of	Deang	is	he	liking	dogs

(*Deang's distinctive character is he is liking dogs.)

In the material processes, the unmarked Present Tense is the Present Continuous. In Thai, the Present Continuous is the clause that is added with the word 'กำลัง' in front of the verb, for example:

แดง	กำลัง	ทำกับข้าว
deang	kam lung	tham kap khaw
Deang	-ing	cook

(Deang is cooking.)

Nevertheless, it does not mean that the any other tense cannot occur. Halliday (1985: 109) states that both tenses are used with both types of process but the any other one is the marked option in each case. In short, the choice of another, marked Present Tense form carries an extra dimension of meaning. For example, if the continuous form occurs with the Mental processes such as in the clause 'แดง (ทำความ) รู้จักตาเป็นครั้งแรก' (Deang is knowing Dam for the first time), it is a highly conditioned kind of inceptive aspect. This clause can also change to Deang is getting to know Dam for the first time.) In contrary, when the Present Tense occurs in the Material processes, it means that process always occurs such as in 'แดงสอนภาษาอังกฤษให้ชาวต่างชาติ' (Deang teaches Thai language to foreigners). This

clause means Deang always teaches Thai language and the process ‘teach’ is general or habitual.

6.3.3 The Probe

The Material processes are the Doing processes, which can be probed by the verb ‘do’ but the mental processes are the opposite. It would sound odd if someone asked the question like ‘แดงทำอะไรดำ’ (What does Deang do to Dam?) and the answer is ‘แดงชอบดำ’ (Deang likes him). With this answer, it would make more sense to probe by asking either:

แดง	รู้สึก	อย่างไร	กับ	ดำ
deang	roo suk	yang rai	kap	dam
Deang	feel	how	with	Dam

(How does Deang feel about Dam?)

Or

แดง	คิด	อย่างไร	กับ	ดำ
Deang	kid	yang rai	kap	Dam
Deang	think	how	with	Dam

(What does Deang think about Dam?)

However, the verb ‘ทำ’ (do) can also probe in the Mental processes but the Probe should be ‘ทำเพื่อ’ (do for). Example:

เรื่อง	ของเขา	ทำ	อะไร	ต่อ	ทุกคน
rung	khongkhao	tham	a rai	tor	tukkhon
The story	his	do	what	for	everyone

(What does his story do for everyone?)

The answer for this Probe should be ‘เรื่องของเขาทำให้ทุกคนกลัว’ (His story scared them)

6.3.4 The Number of Participants

The Mental process must always have two participants except for the asituation or a projection. Even when one participant is not overtly present in the Syntagm, it can still be understood or retrieved from the context. The participant that ‘senses’ is referred to as the Senser, and participant one that is ‘sensed’ is known as the Phenomenon (cf. Halliday 1994, Eggins 1994, Matthiessen 1995, Martin 1996a). The typical structure of a mental process in Thai can be represented as follows:

Senser^Process:mental^Phenomenon

Example:

แดง	รัก	ภรรยา	ของเขา
-----	-----	-------	--------

deang	rak	phanraya	khong khao
Deang	loves	wife	his
Sener	Process: Mental	Phenomenon	

(Deang loves his wife.)

6.3.5 The Nature of Sener

Eggins (1994: 242) refers to the nature of the Sener as ‘an active participant’ which also refers to the TRANSITIVITY functions such as Actor, Behaver and Sayer. In the Mental processes, however, the clause must be only a conscious human participant; whereas, the clauses in the Material processes can be non-human and animate. Nevertheless, the assertion that the Sener must always be human does not necessarily mean that only humans can realise this role. In Thai, the non-human Sener can occur in quite restricted contexts such as in fiction, fairy tales and a magical account.

6.3.6 The Nature of Phenomenon

According to Halliday (1994: 115), the meaning of Phenomenon is, “The set of things that can take on this role is not restricted to any particular semantic or grammatical category; it is actually wider than set of possible participants in a Material process. It may be not only a thing but also a fact”. Eggins (1994: 234) states that the Phenomenon is referred to as, “non-active participant which is thought, felt or perceived by an active clause”. Halliday also identifies three types of Phenomena: Things, Acts and Facts. It would be useful to express this as they also occurred in Thai contexts.

Phenomenon: Things

Halliday (1994: 115) refers to the first type of Phenomenon as a Thing - a Phenomenon of our experience such as a person, an object, or an abstraction. Things can be realised by a human nominal and a non-human nominal. Examples:

แดง	ชอบ	ดำ
deang	shop	dam
Deang	likes	Dam
Senser	Process; Mental	Phenomenon: things

(Deang likes Dam.)

แดง	ได้ยิน	เสียงปืน
deang	dai yin	siang puen
Deang	hears	the shot
Senser	Process: Mental	Phenomenon: things

(Deang hears the shot.)

Phenomenon: Acts

Acts occur with Mental processes of perception such as เห็น (seeing) and ได้ยิน (hearing). Eggins (1944: 243) states that an act is realized by an imperfective non-finite clause acting as if it were a simple noun.

deang	hen	hed karn tee kerd khun
Deang	sees	the situation taking place
Senser	Process: Mental	Phenomenon: Act

(Deang sees the situation taking place.)

Eggins also points out that one test to determine an Act is that the word ‘that’ cannot be inserted directly after the mental processes. As well in Thai language the word ที่, ซึ่ง, อัน (that) cannot occur after the mental processes, it would sound odd as in the example below:

Dean g	hen	tee, sung, aun	hed karn kerd khun
Dean g	sees	that	the situation taking place
Sens er	Process: Mental		Phenomenon: Act

(*Deang sees that the situation taking place)

Nevertheless, it would be common if we use ‘ว่า’ (that) such as:

deang	hen	wa	rot wing yoo bon thanon
Deang	sees	that	the car running on the road
Senser	Process: Mental		Phenomenon: Act

(*Deang sees that the car running on the road.)

Phenomenon: Facts

Halliday (1994) refers to the second type of embedded Phenomenon as a ‘Fact Phenomenon’ The Fact Phenomenon is an embedded clause, typically finite and introduced by ‘that’. Halliday states that the fact that something is a fact is explicitly signalled by the word ‘the fact that’. Compared to Thai language, ‘อันที่จริง’ (the fact that) also occurs in the Fact phenomenon clause. For example:

deang	tranak	aun tee jing mun pen u-but-ti-hed
Deang	realises	the fact that it was an accident
Senser	Process: Mental	Phenomenon

(Deang realises the fact that it was an accident.)

6.3.7 Strong collocation of the Mental process with Circumstance: Manner: degree

One of the characteristics that makes the Mental processes distinct from other types of process is that there is a strong collocation of Mental process verbs, particularly those of the cognitive and emotive types with the Circumstantial manner of degree or

Circumstantial manner of intensification (Matthiessen, 1995: 280). Circumstantial manner of degree or Circumstantial manner of intensification is construed in terms of general specifications of high degree such as ‘มาก’ (very) and in terms of coverage such as ‘ทั้งหมด’ (absolutely, completely, totally). For Example:

	รัก	ภรรยาของเขา	มาก
deang	rak	panraya khongkhao	mak
Deang	loves	his wife	very much
Senser	Process: Mental	Phenomenon	Circumstance

(Deang loves his wife very much.)

	เชื่อ	เธอ	ทั้งหมด
deang	shue	thur	thung mod
Deang	believes	she	totally
Senser	Process: Mental	Phenomenon	Circumstance

(Deang totally believes her.)

6.3.8 Reversibility

Reversibility is one of the major differences that Halliday has identified. Reversibility is a kind of two way process that either the Senser or a Phenomenon can be the Subject in both the active clause and the passive clause. Halliday states that it is not the case that every word in the Mental processes has an exact meaning and feature.

However in Thai, on the other hand, a group of verbs in the Mental processes can be added to the word ‘ทำให้’ (make) in front of the Senser, then they can be realized in either direction. Examples;

‘เชื่อ’ (Believe) ‘ทำให้เชื่อ’ (Convince):

	เชื่อ	ดำ
deang	shue	dam
Deang	believes	Dam
Senser	Process: Mental	Phenomenon

(Deang believes Dam.)

ดำ	ทำให้		เชื่อ
dam	thamhai	Deang	shue
Dam	makes	Deang	believe
Phenomenon		Senser	Process: Mental

(Dam makes Deang believe.)

‘ชื่นชม’ (Admire) ‘ประทับใจ’ (Impress)

	ชื่นชม	ดำ
deang	shuenshom	dam
Deang	admires	Dam

Senser	Process: Mental	Phenomenon
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(Deang admires Dam.)

ดำ	ทำให้		ประทับใจ
dam	thamhai	Deang	prathapjai
Dam	makes	Deang	impressed
Phenomenon		Senser	Process: Mental

(Dam makes Deang impressed.)

6.3.9 Projection

In this section, an attempt is made to examine in some detail the nature of projection in Thai particularly in relation to the Mental processes. Projection is one of the important differences between the Mental and the Material processes because most Mental processes can project; whereas, the Material processes cannot be projected.

The following examples illustrate projection by the Mental process:

แดง	เห็น	ดำ	กำลังเล่น	เทนนิส	เมื่อวานนี้
deang	hen	dam	kamlunglen	tennis	muewannee
Deang	saw	Dam	was playing	tennis	yesterday
Senser	Process: Mental	Actor	Process: Material	Range	Circumstance
Projecting		Projected			

(Deang saw Dam was playing tennis yesterday.)

แดง	หวัง	ว่า	ดำ	จะมา	งานเลี้ยง	คืนนี้
-----	------	-----	----	------	-----------	--------

deang	wang	wa	dam	ja ma	ngan lieng	keunnee
Deang	hopes	that	Dam	will come	party	tonight
Senser	Process: Mental		Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Circumstance
Projecting		Projected				

(Deang hopes that Dam will come to the party tonight.)

Each of the examples above has two clauses. The relationship between the two clauses is a relationship by which one clause projects onto a second clause. Halliday refers to the Projection as a logical relationship that can hold between adjacent clauses. Projection describes the relationship by the terms indirect or reported thought and indirect or quoted thought. Mental process projection has to do with quoting or reporting ideas according to Halliday (1994: 252) he stated that the Mental processes may project a meaning or idea: a paraphrase or a summarised report of thoughts. Eggin (1994: 248) points out that the two clauses, which are in a projection relationship, may be dependent upon each other or independent. If they are dependent, they are called 'reporting'; if independent, they are then called 'quoting'. For example:

Dependent: reporting

แดง	คิด	ว่า	เขา	จะทำอาหาร	มือเย็น
deang	kid	wa	khao	ja tham arharn	mueyen

Deang	thinks	that	he	will cook	dinner
Senser	Process: Mental		Actor	Process: Material	Goal

(Deang thinks he will cook dinner.)

Independent: quoting

แดง	คิด	ฉัน	จะทำอาหาร	มือเย็น	ให้	ดำ
deang	kid	chan	ja tham arharn	mueyen	hai	Dam
Deang	thinks	I	will cook	dinner	for	Dam
Senser	Process: Mental	Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Beneficiary	

(Deang thinks: “I will cook dinner for Dam.”)

As shown above, with quoting, no word ‘ว่า’ (that) can be inserted. However, in reporting mode, it is possible to say

แดง	คิด	(เขา)	จะทำอาหาร	มือเย็น	ให้	ดำ
deang	kid	(khao)	ja tham arharn	mueyen	hai	dam
Deang	thinks	(he)	will cook	dinner	for	Dam
Senser	Process: Mental	(Actor)	Process: Material	Goal	Beneficiary	

(Deang thinks, he will cook dinner for Dam or Deang thinks about cooking dinner for Dam.)

6.3.10 Proposition and Proposal

Semantically, the general distinction between Proposition - giving and demanding information by making a statement or asking a question and Proposal - giving and demanding goods -&- services by making an offer or a command is systematically occurs in a projection complex. Thus, a projected clause may be a Proposition or a Proposal. Below some examples are given:

Proposition

(i) Statement

Reporting:

แดง	คิด	ว่า	เขา	จะทำอาหาร	มื้อเย็น
deang	kid	wa	khao	ja tham arharn	mueyen
Deang	thinks	that	he	will cook	dinner
Senser	Process: Mental		Actor	Process: Material	Goal
Projecting		Projected (MOOD indicative: declarative)			

(Deang thinks he will cook dinner.)

Quoting:

แดง	คิด	“ฉัน	จะทำอาหาร	มือเย็น	ให้	ดำ”
deang	kid	chan	ja tham arharn	mueyen	hai	dam
Deang	thinks	I	will cook	dinner	for	Dam
Senser	Process: Mental	Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Beneficiary	
Projecting		Projected (MOOD indicative: declarative)				

(Deang thinks: “I will cook dinner for Dam.”)

(ii) Question

Reporting:

แดง	สงสัย	ว่า	เขา	สามารถ ไป	งานเลี้ยง	ได้	หรือ	ไม่
deang	songsai	wa	khao	samartpai	nganlieng	dai	rue	ma i
Deang	wonders	that	he	can go	a party	yes	or	no
Senser	Process: Mental		Actor	Process: Material	Goal			
Projecting			Projected (MOOD indicative: declarative)					

(Deang wonders whether he can go to the party.)

Quoting:

แดง	สงสัย	“ฉัน	จะไป	งานเลี้ยง	ได้ไหม”
Deang	songsai	chan	japai	nganlieng	daimai
Deang	wonders	I	will go	a party	can
Senser	Process: Mental	Actor	Process: Material	Goal	
Projecting		Projected (MOOD indicative: interrogative)			

(Deang wonders: Can I go to the party?)

Proposal

(i) Offer

Reporting:

แดง	ตั้งใจ	ว่า	จะทำอาหาร	มือเย็น	ให้	ดำ
deang	tungjai	wa	ja tham arharn	mueyen	hai	dam
Deang	is determined		will cook	dinner	for	Dam
Senser	Process: Mental		Process: Material	Goal	Beneficiary	
Projecting			Projected (MOOD indicative: declarative)			

(Deang is determined to cook dinner for Dam.)

Quoting:

แดง		ฉัน	จะทำอาหาร	มือเย็น	ให้	ดำ
deang	tungjai	chan	ja tham arharn	mueyen	hai	dam
Deang	is determined	I	will cook	dinner	for	Dam
Senser	Process: Mental	Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Beneficiary	
Projecting		Projected (MOOD indicative: declarative)				

(Deang is determined: I will cook Dam dinner.)

(ii) Command

Reporting:

แดง	ต้องการ	ให้	ดำ	พูด	กับ	เขา
deang	tongkarn	hai	dam	pood	gup	khao
Deang	wants	that	Dam	talked	to	him
Senser	Process: Mental		Sayer	Process: Verbal	Receiver	
Projecting			Projected (MOOD indicative: declarative)			

(Deang wants Dam to talk to him.)

Quoting:

“(ดำ)	พูด	กับ	ฉัน”	แดง	หวัง
(dam)	pood	gup	chan	deang	wang
(Dam)	talks	to	me	Deang	wishes
Sayer	Process: Verbal			Senser	Process:Mental
Projected (MOOD imperative)				Projecting	

(“(Dam) Talk to me!” Deang wishes.)

The above examples are intended to illustrate three points. Firstly, the projection in the Mental processes can either be Quoting or Reporting. Secondly, there is a clear distinction between Quoting and Reporting: whereas with Quoting the MOOD choices of the projected clause are varied while with Reporting the MOOD choice of the projected clause is very restricted: in all cases it is declarative. And thirdly, there is an important distinction between Propositions and Proposals: whereas propositions are projected mentally by processes of cognition such as thinking, wondering, understanding, knowing etc., Proposals are projected mentally by what may be referred to as affective processes of desideration such as wishing, wanting, hoping, determining etc.

6.4 Type of Mental Process

In this section, we are concerned with specifying the semantic as well as grammatical bases for classifying these subtypes of mental process. Within the overall category of

Mental process, there are four main subtypes of the Mental process. They are (i) Perceptive, (ii) Cognitive, (iii) Desiderative, and (iv) Emotive.

(i) Mental Processes of Perception

Semantically, the Mental processes of Perception in Thai are defined as processes of human senses such as ‘รู้สึก’ (feeling) ‘สัมผัส’ (touching) ‘ได้ยิน’ (hearing) ‘ได้กลิ่น’(smelling). For examples:

แดง	ได้ยิน	เสียงปืน
deang	dai yin	sieng peun
Deang	hears	the shot
Senser	Process: Mental	Phenomenon

(Deang hears the shot.)

แดง	เห็น	ดำ	เล่น	เทนนิส	เมื่อวานนี้
deang	hen	dam	len	tennis	muewannee
Deang	saw	Dam	played	tennis	yesterday
Senser	Process: Mental	Actor	Process: Material	Range	Circumstance

(Deang saw Dam playing Tennis yesterday.)

The perception process cannot project an ‘idea’, the general process noun or project mental events, either in quoting or in reporting mode. It would sound odd to say the clauses as below:

*แดง	ได้กลิ่น	ดำ	ทำอาหาร	มือเย็น	ของเขา
deang	daiglin	Dam	thamarharn	mueyen	khongkhao
Deang	smelled	Dam	cooked	dinner	his
Senser	Process: Mental	Actor	Process: Material	Range	

(*Deang smelled Dam cooking his dinner.)

This sentence sound odd because it means Deang smells Dam not Dam’s food.

(ii) Mental Processes of Cognition

In term of category meaning, the mental process of Cognition represents mental activities such as ‘เชื่อ’ (believe), ‘คิดถึง’ (miss), ‘จำ’ (remember), ‘ลืม’ (forget), ‘คิด’ (think), and ‘ฝัน’ (dream). For example:

ฉัน	จำ	ผู้ชาย	สูง	คนนั้น	ได้
chan	jum	pooshai	soong	khonnun	dai
I	remember	man	tall	that	can
Senser	Process: Mental	Phenomenon			

(I can remember that tall man.)

ฉัน	คิดถึง	คุณ
-----	--------	-----

chan	kidthung	khun
I	miss	you
Senser	Process: Mental	Phenomenon

(I miss you.)

Lexicogrammatically, the cognitive process is like a desiderative, it can project an ‘idea’ in both quoting and reporting mode. However, the cognitive process can typically project only a proposition, not a proposal such as in the cognitive process. For example:

Reporting:

ดำ	จะไป	กับ	เขา	พรุ่งนี้	แดง	เชื่อ
dam	japai	gup	khao	proongnee	deang	shue
Dam	will go	with	him	tomorrow	Deang	believes
Actor	Process: Material	Circumstance: Accompaniment		Circumstance: Location	Senser	Process: Mental
Projecting					Projected	

(“Dam will go with him tomorrow” Deang believes.)

Quoting:

แดง	เชื่อ	ว่า	ดำ	จะไป	กับ	เขา	พรุ่งนี้
deang	shue	wa	dam	ja pai	gup	khao	proongnee
Deang	believes	that	Dam	will go	with	him	tomorrow
Senser	Process: Mental		Actor	Process: Material	Circumstance: Accompaniment		Circumstance: Location
Projected			Projecting				

(Deang believes that Dam will go with him tomorrow.)

(iii) Mental Processes of Desideration

Semantically, the mental process of Desideration represents the different types of desire such as ‘ปรารถนา’ (desire), ‘หวัง’ (wish, hope) ‘มุ่งมั่น’ (determined) ‘ต้องการ’ (want) for example:

แดง	ต้องการ	น้ำ	หนึ่ง	แก้ว
deang	tongkarn	nam	nung	keaw
Deang	wants	water	one	glass
Senser	Process: Mental	Phenomenon		

(Deang wants a glass of water.)

Most of the desideration processes in Thai can also project an idea Phenomenon, typically in reporting mode. For example:

แดง	หวัง	ว่า	เขา	จะ	เทียว	รอบ	โลก
deang	wung	wa	khao	ja	theaw	rope	lok

Deang	wishes	that	he	will	travel	around	world
Senser	Process: Mental		Actor	Process: Material		Goal	
Projecting			Projected				

(Deang wishes that he will travel around the world.)

A desiderative process can also project a proposal clause such as the example below:

แดง	ตั้งใจ	ว่า	จะทำอาหาร	มือเย็น	ให้	ดำ
deang	tungjai	wa	jathamarharn	mueyen	hai	dam
Deang	intends		will cook	dinner	for	Dam
Senser	Process: Mental		Process: Material	Goal	Beneficiary	
Projecting			Projected (MOOD indicative: declarative)			

(Deang intends to cook dinner for Dam.)

(iv) Mental Processes of Emotion

The Mental process of Emotion represents the mental reactions towards some phenomenon such as ‘เกลียด’ (hate), ‘รัก’ (love), ‘ชอบ’ (like), ‘กลัว’ (frighten, scare).

For example:

ฉัน	ชอบ	แดง	และ	ครอบครัว	ของเขา
chan	shop	deang	lae	khrop khrou	khongkhao

I	like	Deang	and	family	his
Senser	Process: mental	Phenomenon			

(I like Deang and his family.)

tae	chan	glead	ma	khongkhao
but	I	hate	dog	his
	Senser	Process: mental	Phenomenon	

(But I hate his dog.)

However, an emotive process in Thai, lexicographically, can **only** project clause internally though embedding, not clause externally through clause complex. In Thai, it would sound odd to say (I hate: “I hit her.”) or (I hate that the dog is naughty.)

6.5 Summary

In this section, an attempt has been made to specify the nature of the **Mental** processes in Thai language. We have explored the definition criterion and the **essential** aspects of the mental processes in Thai. We have also explored the different subtypes of Mental process: Perceptive, Cognitive, Desiderative and Emotive. We **now** move on to the other type of projecting processes in Thai: The Verbal Process.

6.6 Verbal Processes

The Verbal processes are the processes of saying, they may be **probed** by asking ‘What does x say?’ or ‘What does x say to y?’ we shall begin the **discussion** with a

consideration of this following clause แดงพูดกับดำ ว่า เมืองนี้สวย (“Deang says to Dam, “this city is beautiful”)

We may either ask the questions as:

แดง	พูด	อะไร
deang	pood	a rai
Deang	says	what

(What does Deang say?)

or

แดง	พูด	อะไร	กับ	ดำ
Deang	pood	a rai	gup	Dam
Deang	says	what	with	Dam

(What does Deang say to Dam?)

According to Eggins (1994: 251) “Verbal Processes are processes of verbal action: saying and all its many synonyms including symbolic exchanges of meaning” as in the following clauses:

แดง	ถาม	คำถาม	ดำ
deang	tham	kamtham	dam
Deang	asks	a question	Dam

(Deang asks Dam a question.)

เขา	ไม่	บอก	อะไร	แก่	พวกเรา
khao	mai	bok	arai	kae	puakrao
He	no	told	what	to	us

(He does not tell us anything.)

ป้าย	บอก	ให้	พวกเรา	ระวัง
pai	bok	hai	puakrao	ra wung
The notices	tell	to	us	be careful

(The notices tell us to be careful.)

Shore (1992: 279) states that, “the verbal processes do not describe the world of ‘physiological and psychological behaviour’ as those in behaviour processes. Rather, like the Mental processes, they can be said to represent some sort of human consciousness but they focus only on verbal action or saying”. This is also the definition criterion for the Verbal process in Thai language. In short, “verbal action is not restricted to verbs of saying in the proper sense of the term; it also covers any kind of symbolic exchange meaning” (Halliday 1985: 129). The verbs that are used in the Verbal processes in Thai language are as follows:

‘บอก’ (tell)

‘พูด’ (say)

‘ถาม’	(ask)
‘สั่ง’	(order)
‘ออกคำสั่ง’	(command)
‘เรียกร้อง’	(demand)
‘ขอร้อง’	(request)
‘ชี้ให้เห็น’	(indicate)
‘เสนอ’	(offer)
‘ชี้แจง’	(state)
‘แสดง’	(show)
‘อธิบาย’	(explain)
‘ตำหนิ’	(blame)
‘ชม’	(praise)
‘บรรยาย’	(describe)

‘เยินยอ’	(flatter)
‘ด่าว่า’	(castigate, condemn)
‘ด่าทอ’	(abuse)
‘เหน็บแนม’	(sneer)
‘ดูถูก’	(insult)
‘สัญญา’	(promise)
‘กระซิบ’	(whisper)
‘บ่นพึมพำ’	(mutter)
‘บ่น’	(murmur, complain)
‘ให้สัญญาณ’	(signal)
‘หวีดร้อง’	(scream)
‘พูดชักชวน’	(persuade)

As verbal processes are the processes of saying, they may ask by ‘What does x say?’ or ‘What does x say to y?’ we shall discuss this with consideration to the following clause ‘แดงพูดว่า เมืองนี้สวย’ (Deang says, “This city is beautiful”)

We may ask the question as:

แดง	พูด	อะไร
deang	pood	arai
Deang	says	what

(What does Deang say?)

6.7 Identifying the Verbal Process: Recognition Criteria

The Verbal process in Thai may be lexicogrammatically distinguished from the other processes by two major characteristics:

- (i) The nature of different participant relationships in the process
- (ii) Strong collocation of verbal process with circumstance of matter

According to their significance, each of these characteristics is described in detail below:

6.7.1 The nature of different participant relationships in the process

The Verbal processes typically contain three participants: ‘Sayer’, ‘Receiver’ and ‘Verbiage’. The Sayer refers to the person who says something which may be directed to some entity ‘the Verbiage’ or someone else ‘the Receiver’. The structure of a Verbal process in Thai can be represented as follows:

$$\text{Sayer}^{\wedge}\text{Process:Verbal}(\wedge\text{Receiver})(\wedge\text{Verbiage})$$

However, Halliday (1895: 130) states that there is other types of the Verbal process, in which the Sayer is in the sense acting verbally on another direct participant: ‘The Target’. These four kinds of participants will be addressed in the following subsections.

(i) The Sayer

Typically, the Sayer is a human, but sometimes messages can be represented as conveyed by other types of Sayer. The Sayer, thus, is not necessarily a conscious being; it can be anything that can put out a signal. For example;

A conscious participant:

deang	poodwa	hongnee	ron
Deang	says	this room	hot
Sayer			

(Deang said “this room is hot”.)

An unconscious participant:

naliga	bokwela	khananee	pen	wela	padnaliga
Clock	tells	this time	is	time	eight o'clock
Sayer					

(The clock tells us, it's eight o'clock now.)

(ii) The Receiver

According to Eggins (1994: 252) “the Receiver is the one to whom the verbal process is directed: the Beneficiary of a verbal message, occurring with or without a preposition depending on position in the clause”. However, not all verbal processes entail the function of the Receiver as in the clause below:

deang	boon	penwela	songshoumong
Deang	complains	for	two hours
Sayer	Process: Verbal	Circumstan ce	

(Deang complains for two hours.)

There are a number of verbal clauses that the saying or what is said can also be directed to someone or some other entity which is called the Receiver. Take these clauses below as examples:

deang	tham	dam
Deang	asks	Dam
Sayer	Process: Verbal	Receiver

(Deang asks Dam.)

deang	bok	dam	muewannee
Deang	told	Dam	yesterday
Sayer	Process: Verbal	Receiver	Circumstance

(Deang told Dam yesterday.)

The Receiver, in Thai language, sometimes appears in a prepositional phrase as in the following clauses:

deang	rai ngan	kamprashoom	kae	dam
Deang	reports	the meeting	to	Dam
Sayer	Process: Verbal		Preposition	Receiver

(Deang reports the meeting to Dam.)

The Receiver is an oblique participant and it also shares some features with the Beneficiary in material processes that are the Receiver has the possibility of being conflated with the Subject in clauses which are passive. For example:

dam	dai rap rai ngan	garnprashoom	doy deang
Dam	was reported	the meeting	by Deang
Receiver	Process: Verbal		Sayer

(The meeting was reported to Dam by Deang.)

Moreover, the Receiver and the Beneficiary in the Material process can be characterised as a ‘recipient’. Nevertheless, the Beneficiary is said to be the Recipient of goods and services; whereas, the Receiver is said to be the Recipient of saying.

(iii) The Verbiage

According to Eggins (1994: 252) “the Verbiage is a nominalised statement of the Verbal process: a noun expressing some kind of verbal behaviour such as statements, questions, answers and stories. Take these two clauses below as examples :

deang	sung	nam	sam	keaw
Deang	orders	water	three	glass
Sayer	Process: Verbal	Verbi age		

(Deang orders three glasses of water.)

deang	tham	khamtham	dam
Deang	asks	a question	Dam
Sayer	Process: Verbal	Verbiage	Receiver

(Deang asks Dam a question.)

Halliday (1994) makes a distinction between two types of Verbiage in English, which could also be useful for Thai language. With Halliday (ibid.), a Verbiage can be the ‘content of what is said’ such as ‘น้ำสามแก้ว’ (three glasses of water) in Deang orders three glasses of water. It can also be the ‘name of the saying’ — a sort of ‘cognate object’ in the linguistic terminology such as (a question) e.g. Deang asks Dam a question. In short, Halliday refers to the Verbiage in the Verbal process as a term of a Range which expresses the class, quality and quantity. We shall now refer to the table of Range in the Verbal process that Halliday has given.

Verbal process clause	Range: Verbiage
What did you say?	what
He asked a question	a question
She speaks German	German
Tell me a story	a story
Don't talk nonsense	nonsense
He made a long speech	a long speech

Table 6.4 Range in the Verbal process

(Halliday: 1985: 137)

(iv) The Target

Thompson (1996: 98) states that the verbal process may be directed at, rather than addressed to, another participant. This participant is called the Target. The Target behaves somewhat like a Goal at which the verbal action is said to be targeted. The Target typically occurs with verbs such as ‘ดูถูก’(insult), ‘กล่าวหา’(accuse), ‘ชม’(praise), ‘ดูดำ’(abuse), ‘วิจารณ์’(criticize), ‘ตำหนิ’(blame), ‘ตำว่า’(condemn), ‘ยินดี’(congratulate) and ‘เป็นขอ’(flatter). Examples:

deang	shom	dam	gup	phuen	khongkhao
Deang	praises	Dam	to	friend	their
Sayer	Process: Verbal	Target	Reci pient		

(Deang praises Dam to their friend.)

In fact, as Halliday (1994) and Matthiessen (1995) have pointed out with reference to English, Verbal clauses of this (the Target) type should be treated as lying on the borderline between the Verbal domain and the Material domain. They are Verbal in the sense that they have a Sayer who performs the verbal action but not the physical action; and they are Material in the sense that the verbal action performed by the Sayer can be construed as impacting directly upon another participant (the Target).

6.7.2 Strong Collocation of Verbal Process with Circumstance of Matter

The other feature that is crucial for the recognition of verbal process is that the verbal process is closely related to a category of Circumstance called Matter. For example:

แดง	บ่น	เกี่ยวกับ	หนัง	เมื่อคืน
Deang	bon	geawgup	nung	muekhuen
Deang	complained	about	the movie	last night
Sayer	Process: Verbal	Circumstance: Matter		

(Deang complained about the movie last night.)

The Material and Mental processes as we have already expressed do not have this potentiality. It would sound odd to say the Material and Mental clauses with the Circumstance: Matter in Thai. Examples are given below:

*แดง	เตะ		เกี่ยวกับเรื่องนั้น
Deang	tae	Dam	geawgupruengnun
Deang	kicks	Dam	about that thing.
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Circumstance: Matter

(*Deang kicks Dam about that thing.)

*แดง	ชอบ		เกี่ยวกับ	เรื่อง	นี้
Deang	shop	Dam	geawgup	rueng	nee
Deang	likes	Dam	about	story	this
Senser	Process: Mental	Phenomenon	Circumstance		

(*Deang likes Dam about this story.)

6.8 Verbal Projection

The Verbal process is one of the projecting processes as the Mental process that has been explored at the beginning of this chapter. According to Halliday (1994) the difference between a Verbal projection and a Mental projection is: While a mental process is said to project ‘an idea’ or ‘an unspoken thought’, a Verbal process can be said to project a ‘locution’: quote or report speech. Eggins (1994: 252) states a relationship of interdependence between the two clauses gives quoting or direct speech, whereas a relationship of dependency between projected and projecting clause gives direct or reported speech. In a verbal complex clause, the projecting clause is a Verbal process and the projected clause can be of any process type: Material, Mental and Relational. Eggins (1994) points out that the quoted and the reported clauses can

be a proposition (information) or they may also be a proposal (goods and services) like a Mental process. Moreover, the projecting clause can occur as first or second in the sequence. See the examples below:

Material process:

แดง	บอก		(ให้) เปิด	โทรทัศน์
deang	bok	dam	hai perd	thor ra that
Deang	tells	Dam	to turn on	the television
Sayer	Process: Verbal	Receiver	Process: Material	Goal

(Deang tells Dam to turn the television on.)

	เปิด	โทรทัศน์	ได้ไหม	แดง	ถาม, ขอ
dam	perd	thor ra that	daimai	deang	tham
Dam	turn on	the television	can	Deang	asks
Actor	Process: Material	Goal		Sayer	Process: Verbal

(Deang asks Dam: Can you turn the television on?)

Mental process:

แดง	พูด (ว่า)	เขา	ได้ยิน	เสียงปืน	เมื่อคืน
deang	pood wa	khao	daiyin	siengpuen	muekhuen

Deang	says	he	heard	the shot	last night
Sayer	Process: Verbal	Senser	Process: Mental	Phenomenon	Circumstance

(Deang says he heard the shot last night.)

ดำ	ถาม	คุณ	รู้	เรื่อง	เกี่ยวกับ โรงเรียนนี้	หรือไม่
dam	tham	khun	roo	rueng	geawguprongrean	ruemai
Dam	asks	you	know	the story	about this school	or not
Sayer	Process: Verbal	Senser	Process: Mental	Phenomenon	Circumstance	

(Dam asks: do you know the story about this school?)

Relational process:

แดง	พูด	ว่า	เขา	เป็น	ครู
deang	pood	wa	khao	pen	khroo
Deang	says	that	he	is	a teacher
Sayer	Process: Verbal	Carrier	Process: Relational	Attribute	

(Deang says that he is a teacher.)

เขา	ไม่	แข็งแรง	แดง	พูด
khao	mai	kheangrang	Deang	pood
He	is not	strong	Deang	said

Carrier	Process: Relational	Attribute	Sayer	Process: Verbal
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(Deang says that he is not strong.)

6.9 Types of Verbal Process

The types of verbal processes can be divided into two main types that are middle and effective. The middle clauses can also divided into sub types that are non-ranged and ranged as examples below:

Middle: non-ranged

พวกเรา	คุย	(ด้วย)กัน	เสมอ
puakrao	khui	gun	samur
we	chat	with each other	always
Sayer	Process: verbal	Circumstance: Accompaniment	Circumstance: Location

(We always chat with each other.)

Middle: ranged

แดง	อธิบาย	ประเด็น	สำคัญ	สอง	ประเด็น
deang	athibuy	praden	sumkhan	song	praden

Deang	explains	point	important	two	point
Sayer	Process: verbal	Verbiage			

(Deang explains the two important points.)

Effective:

แสดงความยินดี	กับแดง	ใน	วันครบรอบ	ของเขา
sadeangkhamyindee	gup Deang	nai	wankhroprope	khongkhao
Congratulate	to Deang	on	Anniversary	his
Process:verbal	Circumstance: Accompaniment	Circumstance: Location		

(Congratulations to Deang in his Anniversary.)

The differences between them are (i) In the Middle: non-ranged example, the clause has only the Sayer but in the middle: ranged example, the clause can also have Verbiage, whereas the Effective example can have a Target. (ii) The verbal middle processes cannot project as shown in the example below:

*พวกเรา	คุย	เสมอ	แดง	ไม่	แข็งแรง
puakrao	khuy	samur	deang	mai	khaengrang
We	chat	always	Deang	not	strong

(*We always chat that Deang is not strong.)

(iii) Verbal Middle clauses can also be distinguished from Verbal Effective clauses in that only the former type can take a Circumstance of accompaniment realised as nominal such as (with each other) and (with him) for example:

deang	khuy	gup	dam
Deang	chats	with	Dam
Sayer	Process: Verbal	Circumstance: accomp	

(Deang chats with Dam.)

6.10 Summary

The verbal processes in Thai have been explored in this section. We have established the essential criteria for identifying and distinguishing the Verbal processes in Thai language. Then, we discussed the verbal projection in Thai language. We have also made an attempt to explore the complexity of the different participant relationships of the Verbal processes in Thai language.

6.11 Concluding Remarks

This chapter was concerned about the Projecting processes in Thai: the Mental processes and the Verbal processes. We have established criteria for distinguishing each process option from other types of processes and specified the semantic as well as grammatical bases of their subtypes. Semantically, the Mental processes are processes of human consciousness; while, the Verbal processes are processes of Verbal action. Lexicogrammatically, the Mental processes and the Verbal processes are different from each other in a number of features which has been pointed out in each section. However, they both have the same potential feature of projecting another clause which does not typically occur in the Doing and the Being processes. We have also explored Mental and Verbal projection in this chapter. We now leave this chapter and turn to chapter VII to explore the grammar of the Being process in Thai language.

CHAPTER VII

Being process in Thai

7.1 Introduction

We have explored the structure of the processes of Doing and Projecting that have to do with actions or events of some kind. In this chapter, we explore the remainder processes in Thai that do not encode an action meaning, but instead encode meanings about states of being. There are two main types of the Being process that are the Existential process, where things are simply stated to exist and the Relational processes, where things are stated to exist in relation to other things.

7.2 Existential processes

Existential processes represent something exists or happens by using the clauses “there is/ was something”. For example:

มี		จดหมาย	ใหม่	ใน	กล่องจดหมาย	ของคุณ
mee		jotmai	mai	nai	glong jot mai	khong khun
There	is	a letter	new	in	mailbox	your

(There is a new letter in your mailbox.)

มี		หิมะ	บนภูเขา
mee		hima	bon phukhao
There	is	snow	on the mountain.

(There was snow on the mountain.)

7.3 Existential processes criteria

The Existential processes are distinguished from other processes by three main features:

- (i) Verbs in the Existential processes
- (ii) Participant
- (iii) The strong relationship between existential process and the Circumstantial element: Location

The features above will be described in each section below:

7.3.1 Verbs in the Existential processes

Grammatically, the word ‘there’ in such clauses has no representational function; however, it is required because of the need of the Subject. (Halliday, 1994) In Thai, there is no subject in these clauses; they can begin with verb ‘มี’ (have). These clauses typically have the verb ‘be’ in English language. In Thai we can have the verb ‘อยู่’ (be) in such a clause but it can be omitted if there is ‘มี’ in that clause.

มี		หิมะ	อยู่	บน	ภูเขา
mee		hima	yoo	bon	phukhao
there	is	snow	be	on	the mountain

(There is snow on the mountain.)

The clause without ‘อยู่’ (be) can still be accepted in Thai language.

มี		หิมะ	บน	ภูเขา
mee		hima	bon	phukhao
there	is	snow	on	the mountain.

(There is snow on the mountain.)

There are some other verbs which typically employ the verb ‘be’ or synonyms, expressing existence such as ‘มีอยู่’ (exist), ‘เกิดขึ้น’ (occur) and ‘เกิดขึ้น, ลุกขึ้น, เคลื่อนขึ้น’ (arise), followed by a nominal group functioning as Existent. As shown in the examples below:

พืช	ชนิด	นี้	มีอยู่	เฉพาะ	ใน	เมืองไทย
pued	sha-nit	nee	meeyoo	cha po	nai	Muang thai
plant	type	this	exist	only	in	Thailand
Existent			Process: Existential	Circumstance		

(This plant exists only in Thailand.)

การระเบิด	เกิดขึ้น	เมื่อคืนนี้
garn ra berd	gerd khun	mua khun nee
the explosion	occurred	last night
Existent	Process: Existential	Circumstance

(The explosion occurred last night.)

พายุ	เกิดขึ้น	อาทิตย์ที่แล้ว
pha yu	gerd khun	artit tee leaw
the storm	arose	last week
Existent	Process: Existential	Circumstance

(The storm arose last week.)

However, the Existential processes are also related to the material processes of the ‘happen’ type particularly the using of the verb ‘exist’. Thompson (1996: 101) points out “The verb ‘exist’ is best analysed as a Material process: the rewording reflects at least partly a choice to represent the entity (‘pattern’) as involved in a ‘going on’ (which happens to be that of existing)”. Thompson also gives examples to compare between two processes:

Maybe	there	’s	some other darker pattern
		Process: Existential	Existent

Maybe	some other darker pattern	exists
	Actor	Process: Material

According to Halliday (1985) if the verb (exist) is functioning as Existent, it will represent the Existential processes. As this work is based on Hallidayan theory the verb exist functioning as existent is also counted under the Existent processes.

7.3.2 Participant

There is only one participant in such clauses that is the Existent. The Existent always follows the “there is/was” sequence, may be a phenomenon of any kind, and is typically in fact an event. For example:

มี		เด็กผู้ชาย	สอง	คน
mee		dek phu shai	song	khon
there	are	boys	two	person
	Process: Existential	Existent		

(There are two boys.)

There are two types of Existent process. The first type is Existent of entity. This type can be a human or a thing. See the examples below:

มี		เสือ	(อยู่)	ใต้	ต้นไม้
mee		sua	(yoo)	tai	tonmai
there	is	a tiger	(be)	under	the tree
	Process: Existential	Existent: Entity	Circumstance		

(There is a tiger under the tree.)

มี		แอปเปิล	(อยู่)	ใน	ตะกร้า
mee		apple	(yoo)	nai	takra
there	are	apples	(be)	in	the basket
	Process: Existential	Existent: Entity	Circumstance		

(There are apples in the basket.)

The second type is the Existent of an event. For example:

มี		หิมะ	บนภูเขา
mee		hima	bon phukhao
there	is	snow	on the mountains
	Process: Existential	Existent: Event	Circumstance

(There is snow on the mountains.)

7.3.3 The Strong Relationship Between The Existential Process and Circumstantial Element: Location

The relationship between the Existential processes and the Circumstantial element: Location is common to both of them. For example:

มี		เด็กผู้ชาย	สอง	คน	ใน	ห้อง	นั้น
mee		dek phu-shai	song	khon	nai	hong	nun
there	are	boys	two	person	in	room	that
	Process: Existential	Existent			Circumstance: Location		

(There are two boys in that room.)

According to Halliday (1985: 130), “frequently the existential clause contains a Circumstantial element, as in there was a picture on the wall. If the circumstantial element is thematic, the word ‘there’ may be omitted, as in on the wall was a picture.” In Thai the word ‘มี’ (have, there is) can also be omitted but the word ‘อยู่’ must be added to this clause. It would sound odd if the word ‘มี’ and ‘อยู่’ are omitted together in one sentence. For example:

dek phu-shai	son g	khon	yoo	nai	hong
boys	two	person	be	in	the room
**Existent	Circums-tance: Loc-ation				

(Two boys are in the room.)

The clause below would not be acceptable in Thai language.

dek phu-shai	song	khon	nai	hong
boys	two	person	in	the room
**Existent	Circu-msta-nce: Locati-on			

(*Two boys in the room.)

However, the clause ‘เด็กผู้ชายสองคนอยู่ในห้อง’ (Two boys are in the room.) is not the Existent process. It, on the other hand, is a Relational process in the Attribute Circumstantial mode. The structure of the clause, therefore, should be:

dek phu-shai	song	khon	yoo	nai	hong
boys	two	person	be	in	the room
Carrier	Process : Relational	Attribute/ Circumstance: Location			

(Two boys are in the room.)

7.4 Summary

In this section, an attempt has been made to specify the nature of the Existential processes in Thai language. We have explored the recognition criteria in these processes in order to distinguish them from other processes. Presently, we now move on to the other type of the Being processes in Thai: the Relational processes.

7.5 Relational Processes

The Relational processes are those of being. According to Eggins (1994: 254), the Relational process is where things are stated to exist in relation to the order of things. The central meaning of these clauses of the processes is that something is. Examples are shown below:

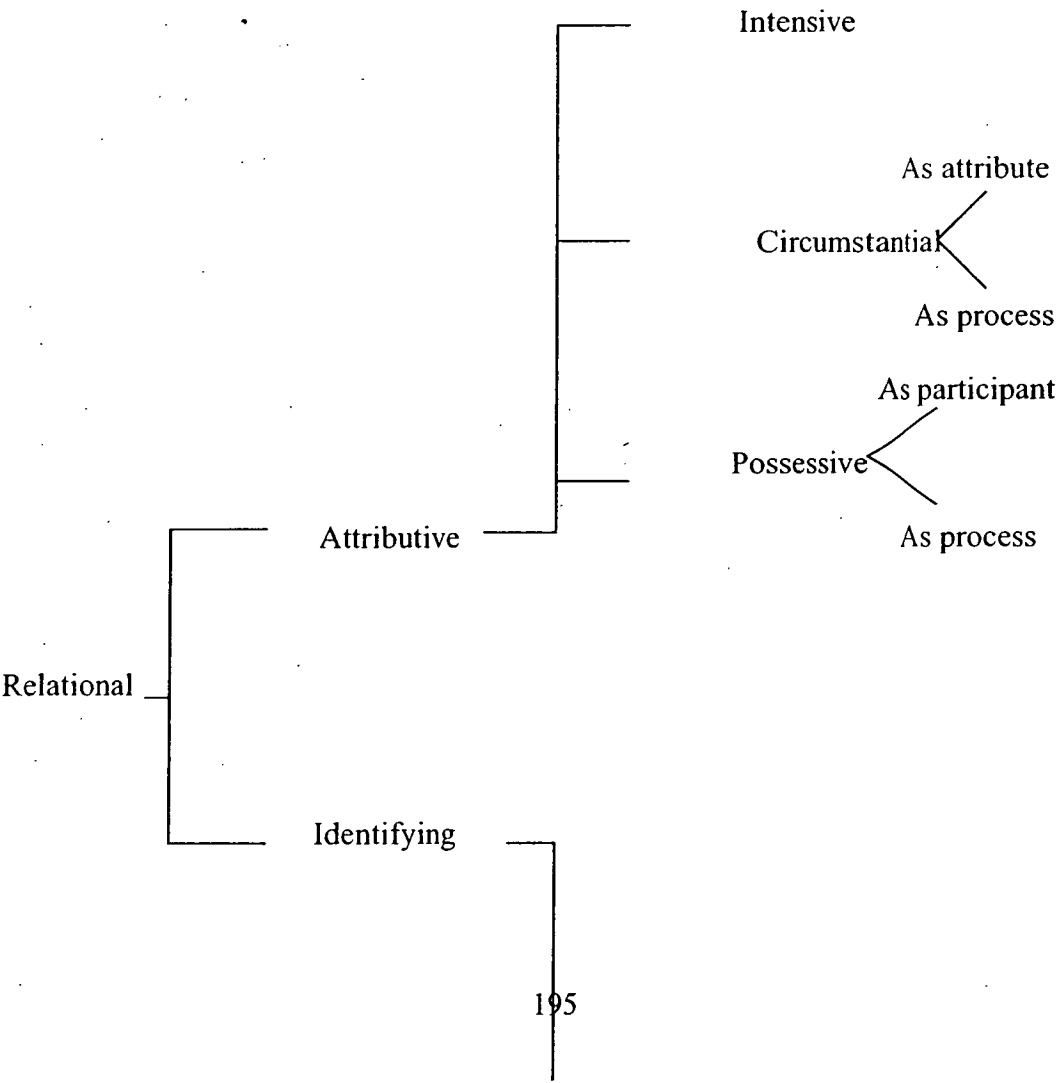
แดง	เป็น	คน	ดี
deang	pen	khon	dee
Deang	is	person	nice

(Deang is a nice person.)

แดง	เป็น	ครู
deang	pen	kroo
Deang	is	a teacher

(Deang is a teacher.)

There are two basic structures of relational processes that are the Attributive and Identifying processes. Each basic structure consists of different types of distinct ways of being that are (i) Intensive (ii) Circumstantial and (iii) Possessive



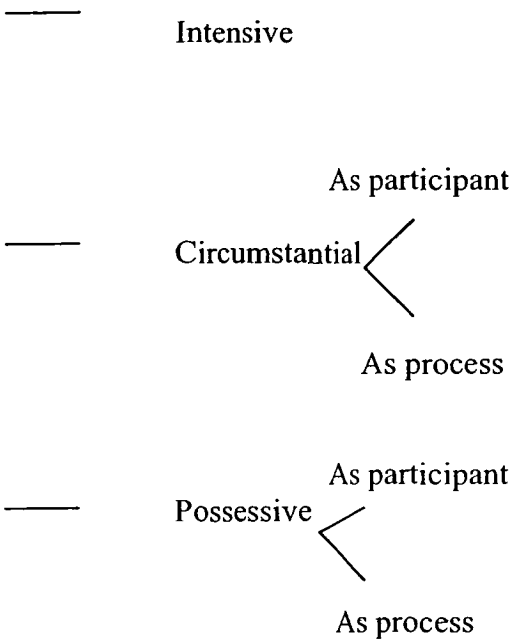


Figure 7.4 Relational processes

We now explore each type of the Relational processes according to the paragraphs above.

7.5.1 The Intensive Attributive Processes

An Intensive Relational process consists of two terms where the relationship is expressed by the verb ‘be’ or ‘เป็น, อยู่, คือ’ in Thai. In the attributive sub-type, a quality, classification, or descriptive epithet is referred to as an Attribute that is assigned to a participant that is referred to the Carrier. The Carrier is typically a noun or nominal group. For the Attributive intensive “x is a member of class a”. Besides the verb ‘be’, there are a number of verbs in the Intensive Attribute mode:

‘กลายเป็น’ (become)

‘ได้รับ’	(get)
‘กลายเป็น กลับกลาย’	(turn)
‘ไป’	(go)
‘เติบโต’	(grow)
‘เริ่มออกเดินทาง’	(start out)
‘กลับกลายเป็น’	(turn out)
‘จบลงที่’	(end up)
‘เก็บ’	(keep)
‘อยู่’	(stay)
‘คงอยู่’	(remain)
‘ดูเหมือน’	(seem)
‘ปรากฏ’	(appear)

‘ดูเหมือน’ (look)

‘ฟังดูเหมือน’ (sound)

‘กลิ่น’ (smell)

‘รสชาติ’ (taste)

‘รู้สึก’ (feel)

In the classification kind of Attributive Intensive, the Attribute is realized as a nominal group, typically one that is indefinite.

Noun:

แดง	เป็น	ครู
deang	pen	kroo
Deang	is	teacher
Carrier	Process: Intensive	Attribute

(Deang is a teacher.)

Noun group:

แดง	เป็น	คน	อ้วน
deang	pen	khon	auan

Deang	is	person	fat
Carrier	Process: Intensive	Attribute	

(Deang is fat.)

In the Descriptive Attribute Intensive, the Attribute is a quality or epithet ascribed to the Carrier, “x carries the attribute a” Attribute is an adjective. The clause in English language in the Descriptive Attribute Intensive mode is as below:

Deang	is	fat
Carrier	Process: Intensive	Attribute

While in Thai verb ‘be’ means ‘เป็น, อยู่, คือ’, it would sound odd to make the clauses such as **แดงคืออ้วน แงอยู่อ้วน หรือ แงเป็นอ้วน** (Deang is fat). The sentence “Deang is fat” will be the clause ‘**แดงเป็นคนอ้วน**’ in Thai. It would be the classified as an Attributive Intensive because ‘**คนอ้วน**’ is from the nominal group of nouns. For example:

แดง	เป็น	คน	อ้วน
deang	pen	khon	auan
Deang	is	person	fat
Carrier	Process: Intensive	Attribute	

(Deang is fat.)

On the other hand, in Thai the verb 'be' can be omitted in a clause such as:

แดง	อ้วน
deang	auan
Deang	fat
Carrier	Attribute

(Deang is fat.)

The attribute clauses are not reversible. There is no passive clause. According to Eggins (1994:257) "There is no passive form of the clause: the Subject can never conflate with the role of Attribute, but will always conflate the role of Carrier."

These following clauses are unacceptable in Thai language:

*อ้วน	แดง
auan	deang
fat	Deang
Attribute	Carrier

*คน	อ้วน	เป็น	แดง
*khon	auan	pen	deang
person	fat	is	Deang

Attribute	Process: Intensive	Carrier
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7.5.2 Intensive Identified processes

The Intensive Identifying processes contrast with the Attributives both semantically and grammatically. Semantically, an Identifying clause is defining. The meaning is that “x serves to define the identify of y”. Grammatically, there are two participants involved in such a clause: a Token (that which stands for what is being defined) and a Value (that which defines)

แดง	เป็น	คน	อ้วนที่สุด	ในชั้น
deang	pen	khon	auan tee sud	nai shan
Deang	is	person	the fattest	in class
Token	Process: Intensive	Value		

(Deang is the fattest one in the class.)

The Identifying mode can be formed in passive clauses. This is because the Identifying mode contains two nominal participants; while the Attribute mode contains only one independent nominal participant. All Identifying clauses are reversible.

คน	อ้วนที่สุด	ในชั้น	คือ	แดง
khon	auan tee sud	nai shan	kue	deang
person	the fattest	in class	is	Deang
Value			Process: Intensive	Token

(The fattest one in the class is Deang.)

From the clauses above, the Token is the nominal group which contains the name, and the Value is the nominal group which gives the classification. The Token will usually be the Subject in an active clause; meanwhile, the Value will usually be the Subject in a passive clause.

Besides 'the verb' to be shown in the example above, there are a number of verbs in the Intensive Identifying mode:

'เท่ากับ'	(equal)
'เพิ่มเข้าไป'	(add up to)
'ทำให้'	(make)
'มีความหมายว่า'	(signify)
'หมายความว่า'	(mean)
'ให้คำจำกัดความ'	(define)

‘หมายความว่า’	(spell)
‘ชี้แนะ’	(indicate)
‘แสดงความคิดเห็น’	(express)
‘แนะนำ’	(suggest)
‘เป็นสัญลักษณ์’	(symbolize)
‘เล่นบท’	(play)
‘แสดง เป็นตัวแทน’	(represent)
‘แสดง’	(stand for)
‘อ้างถึง’	(refer to)
‘เป็นตัวอย่าง’	(exemplify)

(Note: There is more than one meaning in some words of Thai language, we have expressed only the meaning that is relevant to the Intensive Identifying mode.)
Take this clause as an example.

Active:

แดง	เป็นตัวแทน	คนอ่านที่สุดในชั้น
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deang	pen tua tan	khon auan tee sud nai shan
Deang	represents	the fattest person in class.
Token	Process: Intensive	Value

(Deang represents the fattest person in the class.)

Passive:

คนอ้วนที่สุดในชั้น	ถูกเป็นตัวแทน	โดย	แดง
khon auan tee sud nai shan	took pen tua tan	doy	deang
the fattest person in class.	is represented	by	Deang
Value	Process: Intensive	Token	

(The fattest person in class is represented by Deang.)

7.5.3 Circumstantial processes

The circumstantial also occurs commonly in the Attribute and Identifying mode. In the Attribute Circumstantial, there are two modes as shown in the paragraph. Those are Circumstance as an Attribute and Circumstance as a Process.

In Circumstance as an Attribute, the Attribute is typically a prepositional phrase or an adverb of location, manner, cause, etc. The verb still remains intensive that is the verb ‘be’ or เป็น, อยู่, คือ in Thai. For example:

แอปเปิล	อยู่	ใน	ตะกร้า
apple	yoo	nai	takra
apple	is	in	the basket
Carrier	Process: Intensive	Attribute/ Circumstance: location	

(The apple is in the basket.)

The verb can also be another verb of the Attribute class that has been pointed out in the last section. For example:

แดง	ดู	เหมือน	พ่อ	ของเขา
deang	doo	muan	pho	khongkhao
Deang	looks	like	father	his
Carrier	Process: Intensive	Circumstance		

(Deang looks like his father.)

When considering a Circumstance as a Process, the Attribute is a nominal group and the circumstance is expressed by the verbs:

‘เกี่ยวข้อง’ (concern)

‘ถาวร, คงอยู่’ (last)

‘น้ำหนัก, หนัก’ (weight)

‘ราคา’ (cost)

The circumstantial meaning is still encoded in the process itself with the verb meaning “is + circumstance” such as ‘be + matter’, ‘be + extent of time’, be + measure of weight’, and ‘be + measure of price’. The processes are specified as “Circumstantial”. Take these clauses as examples:

เรียงความ	ฉบับนี้	เกี่ยวกับ	ภาษา	ไทย
reang-khwam	cha-bub nee	keaw kup	pasa	thai
Essay	this	concerns	language	Thai
Carrier		Process: Circumstantial	Attribute	

(This essay is about Thai language.)

แดง	หนัก	หนักสิบกิโลกรัม
deang	nak	Hok-sip kilogram

Deang	weight	sixty kilograms
Carrier	Process: Circumstantial	Attribute

(Deang’s weight is sixty kilograms)

The Being Attribute is non reversible and there are no passive clauses. These clauses below would not be acceptable in Thai language.

*ภาษา	ไทย	ได้รับการกล่าวถึง	โดย	เรียงความ	ฉบับนี้
pasa	thai	dai rap karn kraw thung	doy	reang-khwam	Cha-babnee
language	Thai	is concerned	by	essay	this
Attribute		Process: Circumstantial	Carrier		

(*Thai language is concerned by this essay.)

*หกลีบกิโลกรัม	หนัก	โดย	แดง
hok-sip kilogram	nak	doy	deang
sixty kilograms	weight	by	Deang
Attribute	Process: Circumstantial	Carrier	

(*Sixty kilograms is weighted by Deang.)

In Identifying mode, we can encode the circumstantial meaning within either the participants or the process. When the circumstantial meaning is encoded through the participant mode, the Token and the Value will be circumstantial elements of

time, place, etc., but the verb still remains Intensive. However, Halliday (1985: 120) refers to the Token as an Identified and the Value as an Identifier. For example:

วันนี้	เป็น	วันสุดท้ายที่เราพบกัน
wan-nee	pen	wan sud tai tee rao pob kan
today	is	the last day we meet
Token/ Identified/ Circumstance: Time	Process: Intensive	Value/ Identifier/ Circumstance: Time

(Today is the last day we meet.)

The Circumstance identifying mode can be reversible like the Intensive identifying mode. Halliday (1985) points out that the relation between the two participants is simply one of sameness. Take this clause below as an example:

วันสุดท้ายที่เราพบกัน	คือ	วันนี้
wan sud tai tee rao pob kan	kue	wan-nee
the last day we meet	is	today
Value/ Identifier/ Circumstance: Time	Process: Intensive	Token/ Identified/ Circumstance: Time

(The last day we meet is today.)

In the Circumstance as a process, the participants in this mode express the circumstantial meaning through the process. There are a number of verbs that are used in this mode, and they are labelled as Circumstantial, such as:

- ‘เกิดขึ้น, ใช้เวลา’

(take up)
- ‘ตามหลัง’

(follow)
- ‘ข้าม’

(cross)
- ‘เหมือน, คล้าย’

(resemble)
- ‘ติดตามไปด้วย, ไปเป็นเพื่อน’

(accompany)

These verbs encode the circumstance of time, place, accompaniment, manner, etc. as a relationship between participants. Therefore, the verb meaning is “is + circumstance”: take up means ‘be + for (extent in time)”; ‘cross’ means ‘be + across (extent in place)’; ‘follow’ means ‘be + after (location in time)’; ‘accompany’ means ‘be + with’; ‘resemble’ means ‘be + like’. Example;

ภาพยนตร์	ใช้เวลา	สองชั่วโมง
phap-pa-yon	shai we-ra	song shoi-mong
the movie	takes	two hours
Token/ Identified	Process: Circumstantial	Value/ Identifier

(The movie is for two hours.)

ภาพยนตร์	ตามหลัง	โฆษณา
phap-pa-yon	tam lang	cod-sa-na
the movie	follows	the advertisement
Token/ Identified	Process: Circumstantial	Value/ Identifier

(The movie is after the advertisement.)

สะพาน	ตัดข้าม	คลอง
Sa-pan	tad kam	krong
a bridge	crosses	the canal
Token/ Identified	Process: Circumstantial	Value/ Identifier

(A bridge crosses the canal.)

แดง		แม่	ของเขา
deang	krai	mae	Khong-khao

Deang	resembles	mother	his
Token/ Identified	Process: Circumstantial	Value/ Identifier	

(Deang resembles his mother.)

แดง	ไปเป็นเพื่อน	ดำ
deang	pai pen phuen	dam
Deang	accompanies	Dam
Token/ Identified	Process: Circumstantial	Value/ Identifier

(Deang accompanies Dam.)

This circumstance as a process can also be reversible. The verbs above appear as passives. Examples are shown below:

เวลาสองชั่วโมง	ถูกใช้	ไปกับ	ภาพยนตร์
We-ra song shoi-mong	took shai	pai gap	phap-pa-yon
two hours	take up	by	the movie
Value/ Identifier	Process: Circumstantial		Token/ Identified

(Two hours are taken up by the movie.)

โฆษณา	ตามหลัง	ด้วย	ภาพยนตร์
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cod-sa-na	tam lang	doi	phap-pa-yon
the advertisement	is followed	by	the movie
Value/ Identifier	Process: Circumstantial		Token/ Identified

(The advertisement is followed by the movie.)

7.5.4 Possessive Processes

Possessive processes encode meanings of ownership and possession between participants. According to figure 7.4, Possessive Processes are also divided into two modes these are the Attribute mode and the Identifying mode like the Circumstantial processes.

In the Attribute mode, the possessive relationship may be encoded either as participant, that is the verb still remains intensive, or as Process, the Attributive Possessive verbs are ‘มี’ (to have), ‘เป็นของ’ (to belong to). The Participants are still labelled as a Carrier and an Attribute in participant mode, but they are referred as a Possessor and a Possessed in Possess mode. Examples are shown below:

Possessive attribute participant mode:

หนังสือ	เล่มนี้	เป็น	ของฉัน
nung-sue	lem nee	pen	Khong chan

book	this	is	mine
Carrier		Process: Intensive	Attribute

(This book is mine.)

Possessive Attribute Process mode:

ฉัน	มี	หนังสือ
chan	mee	nung-sue
I	have	a book
Possessor	Process: Possession	Possessed

(I have a book.)

หนังสือ	เป็นของ	ฉัน
nung-sue	pen khong	chan
the book	belongs to	me
Possessor	Process: Possession	Possessed

(The book belongs to me.)

Noted that the use of clauses in the Intensive clause is the same as the Procession clause in Thai. This is because the Possession structure in Thai language is limited. Possessives and Possessive Pronouns are used to say that one person or

thing belongs to another or is connected with another in Thai the words ‘เป็นของ’ (is + Possessive Pronoun or belong to) or ‘เป็นเจ้าของ’ (‘own’: see the Identifying Possession section).

The attribute possessive processes are like the other Attribute Processes; they are not reversible. The example clauses below are not accepted in Thai language.

*ฉัน	ถูกเป็นของ	หนังสือ
*chan	took pen khong	nung-sue
I	be belonged to	the book
Possessor	Process: Possession	Possessed

(*I am belonged to the book.)

In Identifying Possessives, possession may also be expressed either through the participants, or through the Process. The intensive verb ‘be’ is still used in the Identifying Possessives which are expressed through the participants which are labelled as the Token/ Possessed and the Value/Possessor. However, the clauses in this mode in Thai language are the same as the clauses in Attribute mode. This is because Thai language has no apostrophe form to say whom something belongs to. They use the same clauses as the Attribute process. For example:

หนังสือ	เป็น	ของแดง
nung-sue	pen	khong deang

the book	is	Deang's
Identified/Token: Possessed	Process: Intensive	Identifier/ Value: Possessor

(The book belongs to Deang.)

The Identifying process may also be reversible. In Thai, the clause below is still acceptable.

ของแดง	คือ	หนังสือ
khong deang	kue	nung-sue
Deang's	is	a book
Identified/Value: Possessed	Process: Intensive	Identifier/ Token: Possessor

(Deang's belonging is book.)

However, the use of this clause is limited to some contexts such as when someone wants to ask the question “อันไหนคือของของแดง” (which one (thing) belongs to Deang?) and then the answer will be “ของของแดงคือหนังสือ” (Deang's is a book.)

When the possession is expressed through the Process, the verb ‘to own’ (เป็นเจ้าของ) is used. This mode is also reversible. Examples are given below:

Active:

แดง	เป็นเจ้าของ	หนังสือ
deang	pen jao-khong	nung-sue
Deang	owns	the book
Identified/ Token	Process: Possession	Identifier/ Value

(Deang owns the book.)

Passive:

หนังสือ	ถูกเป็นเจ้าของ	โดย	แดง
nung-sue	took pen jao-khong	doy	deang
the book	is owned	by	Deang
Identified/Value	Process: Possession		Identifier/Token

(The book is owned by Deang.)

or

หนังสือ	ถูก	แดง	เป็นเจ้าของ
nung-sue	took	deang	pen jao-khong
the book	be	Deang	owned
Identified/Value		Identifier/Token	Process: Possession

(The book is owned by Deang.)

Besides the processes in Figure 7.4 there is another type of relational process that needs to be explored since it is also useful in Thai language, that is the Causative

Relational. Causative Relational Processes may appear with either Attribute or Identifying structures, with causation expressed either through make + be (ทำให้...เป็น, ทำให้...กลายเป็น) this is called the Intensive process, or, with an Identifying relational, through a Causative Process. For the participants, the Causative involves an Agent in making or causing something. With an Attribute Relational, an Agent causes the Carrier to have an Attribute ascribed. For example:

บทเรียนในอดีต	ทำให้	แดง	กลายเป็น	คนดี
bot rean nai a-deed	tham hai	deang	grai pen	khon dee
the lesson in the past	made	Deang	become	a good person
Agent	Process: Causative	Carrier	Process: Intensive	Attribute

(The lessons in the past made Deang become a good person.)

The Causative Passives can also be formed as follows:

แดง	ถูกทำให้	กลายเป็น	คนดี	ด้วยบทเรียนในอดีต
deang	took tham hai	grai pen	khon dee	duy bot rean nai a-deed
Deang	was made	to become	a good person	by the lesson in the past
Carrier	Process: Causative	Process: Intensive	Attribute	Agent

(Deang became a good person from the lessons in the past.)

The Intensive Process is typically omitted in Thai language. Take these clauses as examples:

บทเรียนในอดีต	ทำให้	แดง	เข้มแข็ง
bot rean nai a-deed	tham hai	deang	kem-keang
the lesson in the past	made	Deang	strong
Agent	Process: Causative	Carrier	Attribute

(The lesson in the past made Deang strong.)

ศัลยกรรมพลาสติก	ทำให้	เธอ	สวย
san-la-ya-kam plas-sa-tic	tham hai	thur	suy
plastic surgery	made	her	beautiful
Agent	Process: Causative	Carrier	Attribute

(Plastic surgery made her beautiful.)

In the Identifying mode, the Agent or the Assigner makes the Token take a value.

In Thai, active clauses in the Identifying mode cannot be accepted. For example:

*การประกวดนางงาม	ทำให้	เธอ	นางสาวไทย	ปีนี้
*karn pra kud nang ngam	tham hai	thur	nang sao thai	pee nee
a beauty contest	makes	her	'Miss Thailand'	this year

Agent	Process: Causative	Token	Value	Circumstance
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(*A beauty contest makes her ‘Miss Thailand’ this year.)

The correct sentence should be in the Attribute Relational mode:

การประกวดนางงาม	ทำให้	เธอ	กลายเป็น	นางสาวไทยปีนี้
karn pra kud nang ngam	tham hai	thur	grai pen	nang sao thai pee nee
a beauty contest	made	her	become	‘Miss Thailand’ this year
Agent	Process: Causative	Carrier	Process: Intensive	Attribute

(The beauty contest made her become ‘Miss Thailand’ this year.)

However, Passive Clauses in this mode are accepted in both speaking and writing.

For example:

เธอ	ถูกทำให้เป็น	นางสาว ไทย	ปีนี้	โดยการประ กวดนางงาม
thur	took tham hai pen	nang sao thai	pee nee	doy karn pra kud nang ngam
she	was made	‘Miss Thailand’	this year	by a beauty contest

Token	Process:	Value	Circumstance	Agent
	Causative			

(She was made ‘Miss Thailand’ this year by the beauty contest.)

7.6 Summary

The relational process in Thai has been explored in this section. We have attempted to establish the essential criteria for identifying the Relational Processes in Thai language. We have also explored the different types of relational processes which are mainly Attributive types and Identifying types.

7.7 Concluding Remarks

This chapter was concerned about Being Processes in Thai these are the Existential Processes and the Relational Processes. We have attempted to define both processes, and we have also established features for distinguishing each process from one another through out the chapter. We now turn to the next chapter

to examine another function which is called 'Circumstantial Elements' in Thai TRANSITIVITY which is very important to the TRANSITIVITY system.

CHAPTER VIII

Circumstantial Elements in Thai language

8.1 Introduction

The six different types of processes of TRANSITIVITY in Thai language have already been explored in the last three chapters. We have examined the essential criteria of each process in order to distinguish each of them from one another. We have also explored two other participants: the Beneficiary and the Range that are associated with the processes. Nevertheless, there is another function that we are able to treat independently without distinguishing it according to process types. Next we introduce another function. These are labelled as 'Circumstantial Elements' through out this chapter. Although, we have made some points on particular Circumstantial Elements that combine with the Processes, they are only characterised by Process – participant configurations where the functions are particular to that type. In this chapter, a more detailed list of types of Circumstances on Thai TRANSITIVITY will be expressed.

8.2 Circumstances and Participants

In Thai, there are a number of ways to distinguish Circumstances from Participants. In this section, we will point out the essential respects between Participants and Circumstances.

First of all, there are the specific terms for every word in Thai language that refer and distinguish their functions in experiential components. The nominal groups and Pronouns refer to Participants such as the Senser, the Phenomenon, the Actor, the Goal, etc. Verb phrases refer to Processes such as Material Processes, Verbal Processes and Mental processes. Prepositional phrases refer to the Circumstances. For example:

เธอ	หัวเราะ	เสียงดัง
thur	huo-ro	sieng dung
she	laughs	loudly
Behaver	Process: Behavioural	Circumstance
Pronoun	Verb	Adjunct

(She laughs loudly.)

Secondly, Circumstances are more mobile in the clause than Participants. Consider these following examples:

แดง	รัก	เธอ	ตั้งแต่ปีที่แล้ว
deang	ruk	thur	tung tae pee thee leaw
Deang	loved	her	since last year
Senser	Process: Mental	Phenomenon	Circumstance

(Deang has loved her since last year.)

เธอ	รัก	แดง	ตั้งแต่ปีที่แล้ว
thur	ruk	deang	tung tae pee tee leaw
she	loved	Deang	since last year
Senser	Process: Mental	Phenomenon	Circumstance

(She has loved Deang since last year.)

The two clauses above have different meanings when the Subject ‘แดง’ (Deang) moves to be an object in the second clause and ‘เธอ’ (she) becomes the Subject. On the other hand, the meaning is not changed when the Circumstance is moved as the two following examples show:

แดง	รัก	เธอ	ตั้งแต่ปีที่แล้ว
deang	ruk	thur	tung tae pee thee leaw
Deang	loved	her	since last year
Senser	Process: Mental	Phenomenon	Circumstance

(Deang has loved her since last year.)

ตั้งแต่ปีที่แล้ว	ที่	แดง	รัก	เธอ
tung tae pee thee leaw	thee	deang	ruk	thur
since last year	that	Deang	loved	she
Circumstance		Senser	Process: Mental	Phenomenon

(Since last year, Deang has loved her.)

Thirdly is the presence of a Mood element, consisting of a Subject, a Finite, a Predicator, a Complement and an Adjunct, Circumstances are usually the Adjunct. It is typically realised by an adverbial group or prepositional phrase and does not have the potential of being a Subject. For example:

เธอ	มา	ที่นี่	พร้อมด้วย	ไม้ตะพด
thur	ma	theenee	prom doey	mai ta pot
she	comes	here	with	a walking stick.
Actor	Process: material	Goal	Circumstance: Accompaniment	
Subject	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct	

(She comes here with her walking stick.)

However, an adjunct, in Thai, can sometimes become a Subject. Consider the following examples:

มี		เทศกาล	อาหาร	ที่ถนนถัดไป
mee		ted sa karn	arharn	thee tanon tad pai
there	is	festival	food	on the next street
	Process	Existent; Event		Circumstance
Subject	Finite	Complement		Adjunct

(There is a food festival on the next street.)

ที่ถนนถัดไป	มี	เทศกาล	อาหาร
thee tanon thad pai	mee	tadsakarn	arharn
at the next street	has	festival	food
Circumstance	Process	Existent: Event	
Subject	Finite	Complement	

(There is a food festival on the next street.)

Fourthly, Participants and Circumstances answer different questions in the clause.

Participants typically answer the questions ‘ใคร’ (Who?) ‘อะไร’ (What?); meanwhile, circumstances answer questions ‘เมื่อใด’ (when?) ‘ที่ไหน’ (Where?) ‘ให้ใคร’ (To whom?) and ‘อย่างไร’ (How?)

Finally, Participants typically are inherent elements in the clause; meanwhile,

Circumstances are not inherent elements. According to Bell (1991: 127)

“circumstances are not essential for the creation of a logically satisfactory proposition”. Halliday (1994) also suggests that the circumstances are attendant rather than directly involved in the Process. Consider this following clause:

ตอนหกโมงเย็น	แดง	กำลังกิน	อาหารมื้อค่ำ
torn hok mong yen	Deang	gum lung gin	arharn mue kham
at six o'clock	Deang	eating	dinner
Circumstance	Actor	Process: Material	Goal

(Deang is eating dinner at six o'clock.)

The circumstance ‘ตอนหกโมงเย็น’ (at six o’clock) seems not to be essential for this clause as the word ‘อาหารมื้อค่ำ’ (dinner) has already presented the time itself unless we ask the question ‘แดงกินอาหารกี่โมง?’ (When does Deang have dinner?). Otherwise, the circumstance ‘ตอนหกโมงเย็น’ (at six o’clock) can be an ellipsis. By contrast, this clause will be incomplete without the Participants ‘แดง’ (Deang) and ‘อาหารมื้อค่ำ’ (dinner). However, one of participants can be an ellipsis according to the probe. For example:

Probe:

แดง	กำลัง	ทำ	อะไร
deang	gum lung	tham	a rai
Deang	-ing	do	what

(What is Deang doing?)

Answer:

กำลังกิน	อาหารมื้อค่ำ
gum lung gin	arharn mue khum
eating	dinner

((Deang is) eating dinner)

Probe:

ใคร	กำลัง	กิน	อาหารมื้อค่ำ
krai	gum lung	gin	arharn mue khum

who	-ing	eat	dinner
-----	------	-----	--------

(Who is eating dinner?)

Answer:

deang

(Deang)

Nevertheless, Circumstances are needed when they are crucial in providing background or situational information without which the content of the proposition would be bare and uninteresting. (Bell, 1991)

8.3 Cases of Ambiguity

There are some cases of Ambiguity between the Participants of the Process and the Circumstantial Elements. It was pointed out in the previous section that Participants are largely inherent; however, the Circumstances are not inherent. Nevertheless, there are some cases where the Circumstances seem to be inherent and the presence of the Circumstance in the state of affairs seems to be obligatory. Compare the following sentences:

เด็กๆ	เล่น	ฟุตบอล	อยู่ที่สนาม
-------	------	--------	-------------

dek dek	len	football	yoo thee sanarm
children	play	soccer	in the yard
Actor	Process: Material	Range	Circumstance

(Children play soccer in the yard.)

แดง	จุ่ม	มือ	ของเขา	ลงใน	น้ำ	อุ่น
deang	jum	mue	khongkhao	long nai	nam	aun
Deang	dipped	hand	his	into	water	warm
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Circumstance			

(Deang dips his hands into warm water.)

The presence of two circumstances ‘อยู่ที่สนาม’ (in the yard) and ‘ลงในน้ำอุ่น’ (into warm water) are different; the first circumstance ‘อยู่ที่สนาม’ (in the yard) can be optional; while, the second circumstance ‘ลงในน้ำอุ่น’ (into warm water) is obligatory.

First of all, the Action process ‘เล่น’ (play) is like the action processes such as ‘ร้องเพลง’(sing) ‘เต้นรำ’(dance), they do not require the expression of location. On the other hand, the action ‘จุ่ม’(dip) is like the Action processes such as ‘นำไป’ (take) ‘ริน’ (pour) and ‘วาง’ (put) which still require the expression of location.

Secondly, ‘ลงในน้ำอุ่น’ (into warm water) is almost as an inherent in the clause which can be interpreted either a Circumstance or a Participant. It can be interpreted as a Circumstance because it refers to a location which can be probed by asking ‘ที่ไหน’ (where?); meanwhile, it can be interpreted as a Participant because its presence is

inherent and obligatory. It also can be a Subject in the passive clause. Examples are shown below:

น้ำอุ่น	ถูก	แดง	นำ	มือ	ลงไป	จุ่ม
nam aun	took	deang	num	mue	long pai	jum
warm water	(passive)	Deang	take	hand	into	dip

(Warm water was dipped into by Deang’s hands.)

Or

น้ำอุ่น	ถูก	มือ	ของแดง	จุ่ม	ลงไป
nam aun	took	mue	khong deang	jum	long pai
warm water	(passive)	hand	Deang’s	dip	into

(Warm water was dipped into by Deang’s hands.)

However, the clause below is not common in Thai language; even though, the grammar and word order is correct.

*น้ำอุ่น	ถูกจุ่ม	มือ	ลงไป	โดย	แดง
nam aun	took jum	mue	long pai	doy	deang
warm water	is dipped	hand	into	by	Deang

(Warm water was dipped into by Deang's hands.)

Furthermore, according to Halliday (1994), there is no sharp distinction between Participants and Circumstances in English language. In Thai language, the difference between Participant and Circumstance is a matter of degree of involvement in the process. Compare the following examples:

แดง	ส่ง	บัตรอวยพร	ถึง	ดำ
deang	song	but auy porn	tung	dam
Deang	sends	card	to	Dam
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Beneficiary	

(Deang sends a card to Dam.)

แดง	ส่ง	บัตรอวยพร	ไป	ออสเตรเลีย
deang	song	but auy porn	pai	aus-tra-lia
Deang	sends	card	go (to)	Australia
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Circumstance	

(Deang sends a card to Australia.)

The differences between the Beneficiary and the Circumstance in the two sentences above are both semantic and grammatical. , Semantically, according to Halliday (1994), the first sentence refers to a person whom goods are given; while, the second sentence refers to a place where the goods are sent to. Grammatically, the first clause answers the question ‘ให้ใคร’ (To whom?); while the second clause answers the question ‘ที่ไหน’ (Where?) this has been mentioned in the section ‘Participant and

Circumstance’. Moreover, the Beneficiary ‘ดำ’ (Dam) can be a Subject in the Passive clause;

ดำ	ถูกส่ง	บัตรอวยพร	ไป	ถึง	โดย	แดง
dam	took song	but auy porn	pai	tung	doy	deang
Dam	is sent	card	go	to	by	Deang

(Dam is sent a card by Deang.)

Nevertheless, this clause above is not commonly used by Thai native speakers. There are two patterns which use Passive clauses. The choice of Passive in Thai constitutes the entry condition for systemic choices that are Desirable and Undesirable as has been pointed out in chapter II. This clause is a Desirable one where Dam receives the benefit. Therefore, the clause above cannot be accepted even though the grammar is correct. The corrected sentence is shown in the example below:

ดำ	ได้รับ	บัตรอวยพร	จาก	แดง
Dam	dai rup	but auy porn	jark	deang
Dam	receives	card	from	Deang
Beneficiary	Process: Material	Goal		Actor

(Dam receives a card from Deang.)

Whereas, the Circumstance ‘ออสเตรเลีย’ (Australia) cannot be the Subject in both clauses below:

*ออสเตรเลีย	ถูกส่ง	บัตรอวยพร	ไป	ให้	โดย	แดง
aus-tra-lia	tooksong	butauyporn	pai	hai	doy	deang
Australia	is sent	card	go	give	By	Deang

(*Australia is sent a card to by Deang.)

ออสเตรเลีย	ได้รับ	บัตรอวยพร	จาก	แดง
aus-tra-lia	dai rup	but auy porn	jark	deang
Australia	receives	card	from	Deang

(*Australia receives a card from Deang.)

There is still ambiguity between Participants and Circumstances. Take this clause as an example:

แดง	ส่ง	บทความ	(ไป)	ถึง	ไทยรัฐ
deang	song	bot khwam	pai	tung	thai-rath
Deang	sent	article	(go)	to	Thairath
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	?		

(Deang sends the article to Thairath.)

This clause seems to be an intermediate between the two clauses above because it does not refer to a person or a place. It, in fact, refers to an institution which can be probed by either ‘ให้ใคร’ (To whom?) or ‘ที่ไหน’ (Where?). It can also have a Passive clause for example:

บทความ	ถูกส่ง	ถึง	ไทยรัฐ	โดย	แดง
bot khwam	took song	tung	thairath	doy	deang
article	is sent	to	Thairath	by	Deang
Goal	Process: Material	?		Actor	

(Thairath is sent an article by Deang.)

We can presume that the clause like this can have both the characteristics of Participants and Circumstances as a continuity between them. According to Halliday (1994) and Matthiessan (1995), one needs to be prepared to accept such a language fact and to provide for it in one’s analysis and description.

8.4 Types of Circumstance

In this section, we will explore each type of Circumstantial element. According to Halliday (1994), there are nine types: Extent, Location, Manner, Contingency, Accompaniment, Matter, Cause, Role and Angle.

8.4.1 Extent

Circumstantials of Extent in Thai language have two sub-types which are labelled as spatial Extent and Temporal Extent. For the Spatial Extent, this expresses the distance in space which can be probed by asking ‘ไกลเท่าใด’ (how far) ‘กี่กิโลเมตร’ (how many + measurement units (kilometers)?). The structure is a nominal group with a quantifier that can be either definite or indefinite. Examples are shown below:

แดง	วิ่ง	สิบกิโลเมตร
deang	wing	sip kilometer
Deang	runs	Ten kilometers
Actor	Process: Material	Circumstance: Extent: Spatial: Definite

(Deang runs (for) ten kilometers.)

แดง	วิ่ง	หลายกิโลเมตร
deang	wing	lai kilo
Deang	runs	many kilometers
Actor	Process: Material	Circumstance: Extent: Spatial: Indefinite

(Deang runs (for) many kilometers.)

The Extent: Spatial is different from Phenomenon or Range in the Behavioural process. This is because the Behavioural process expresses the measurement unit of capacity such as ‘น้ำสองแก้ว’ (Two glasses of water) in ‘แดงดื่มน้ำสองแก้ว’ (Deang drinks two glasses of water.)

The Temporal Extent expresses the duration in time that can be probed by asking ‘นานแค่ไหน, นานเท่าใด’ (how long) or ‘บ่อยแค่ไหน’ (how often). The structure is like the Spatial extent because it is a nominal group with quantifier that can be either definite or indefinite. Examples are shown below:

แดง	วิ่ง	สองชั่วโมง
deang	wing	song shoi mong
Deang	runs	two hours
Actor	Process: Material	Circumstance: Extent: Temporal: Definite

(Deang runs (for) two hours.)

แดง	วิ่ง	หลายชั่วโมง
deang	wing	lai shoi mong
Deang	runs	many hours
Actor	Process: Material	Circumstance: Extent: Temporal: Indefinite

(Deang runs (for) many hours.)

8.4.2 Location

The Circumstantial element of Location also forms two sub-types as the Extent. These are Spatial Location and Temporal Location. The spatial Location one can be probed by asking ‘ที่ไหน’ (where?). It can be ‘a concrete or an abstract location’ and ‘a

definite or an indefinite location’. It can be expressed as either a **place nominal** or a prepositional phrase. Examples are shown below:

หัวมุมถัดไปของตึกตึกนี้	พวกเรา	จะเจอ	ร้านไอศกรีม
hoi mum tad pai khong tuk tuk nee	puakrao	ja jur	rarn ice cream
At the next corner of this building	we	will see	an ice cream shop.
Circumstantial: Location: Spatial: Concrete: A place nominal	Actor	Process: Material	Goal

(We will see an ice-cream shop at the next corner of this building.)

มัน	เป็น	ร้านไอศกรีม	ในฝันของฉัน
mun	pen	rarn ice cream	nai fun khong chan
It	is	the ice cream shop	in my dream
Identified	Process: Intensive	Identifier	Circumstantial: Location: Spatial: Abstract: Preposition phrase

(It is the ice-cream shop in my dream.)

แดง	กำลังรอ	พวกเรา	ที่ร้านไอศกรีมแห่งนั้น
deang	gum lung ro	puak rao	thee rarn ice cream heang nun

Deang	is waiting	us	at that ice cream shop
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Circumstantial: Location: Spatial: Definite: Preposition phrase

(Deang is waiting for us at that ice-cream shop.)

มัน	น่าจะอยู่	ที่ไหนสัก แห่ง	ใกล้กับป้ายรถประจำทาง
mun	na ja yoo	thee nai sak hang	glai gup pai rot pra jum thang
It	should be	somewhere	near the bus stop
Identified	Process: Intensive	Identifier	Circumstantial: Location: Spatial: Indefinite: Preposition phrase

(It should be somewhere near the bus stop.)

The Spatial Location can also be classified into three spatial Locations of position and direction. For the first mode, the Spatial Location of position was referred as spatial Location which was already been explored above. The second mode is the Spatial Location of direction. This mode can be divided into three subtypes: Source, Destination and Path. We now look at them in each subtype.

The Spatial direction of source refers to a movement from a source that can be probed by asking ‘มาจากที่ไหน’ (where from?) It is realised as a prepositional phrase. For example:

บรรพบุรุษของ เขา	มา	จาก	ทางตอนเหนือ ของ	ประเทศ จีน
ban pha bu rut	ma	jark	thang torn nue khong	pra thed jean
his ancestors	come	from	northern	China
Actor	Material	Circumstance: Spatial: Source		

(His ancestors come from northern China.)

The Spatial Direction of destination refers to a movement to a destination of location that can be probed by asking ‘ไปที่ไหน’ (Where to?). It is realised as a Preposition Phrase or a Place Nominal.

แดง	ว่ายน้ำ	ไป	เกาะแห่งนั้น
deang	wainam	pai	goa hang nun
Deang	swims	go (to)	that Island
Actor	Process: Material	Circumstance: Spatial: Destination	

(Deang swims to that Island.)

The last mode is the Spatial Direction of path. It refers to a movement along a path that can be probed by asking ‘ที่ไหน’ (Where?). It can be realised as a Prepositional Phrase with the preposition ‘ไปทาง’ (along) and ‘ข้าม’ (across). For example:

แดง	เดิน	ข้าม	สะพาน
deang	dern	kharm	sapharn
Deang	walks	across	the bridge
Actor	Process: Material	Circumstance: Spatial: Path	

(Deang walks across the bridge.)

The Temporal Location refers to the period of time of the action or event. The interrogative form for this mode is ‘เมื่อไหร่’ (When?) and ‘เวลาเท่าใด’ (What time?). It can be appeared as an Adverbial phrase and a Prepositional phrase in either the definite or indefinite. Examples are shown below:

ฉัน	พบ	แดง	เมื่อวานนี้
chan	phop	deang	meuwannee
I	met	Deang	yesterday
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Circumstance: Location: Temporal: Definite: Adverbial phrase

(I met Deang yesterday.)

ฉัน	จะ พบ	แดง	เร็วๆนี้
-----	-------	-----	----------

chan	ja phop	deang	reaw reaw nee
I	will meet	Deang	soon
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Circumstance: Location: Temporal: Indefinite: Adverbial phrase

(I will meet Deang soon.)

ฉัน	จะ พบ, เจอ	แดง	พรุ่งนี้เที่ยง
chan	ja phop	deang	proong nee thieng
I	will meet	Deang	at noon tomorrow
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Circumstance: Location: Temporal: Definite: Prepositional phrase

(I will meet Deang at noon tomorrow.)

แดง	จะกลับมา	บ้าน	ประมาณสองสามเดือนหน้า
deang	ja glup ma	barn	pra marn song sam doen na
Deang	will return	home	During the next couple of months
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Circumstance: Location: Temporal: Indefinite: Prepositional phrase

(Deang will return home during the next couple of months.)

The Temporal Location can be also divided into three modes of time these are Position, Retrospective and Prospective. For the first mode, the Position Temporal location was referred to as the temporal location that has already been explored in the last section. The Retrospective Temporal Location expresses the orientation of time

into the past which can be probed by asking ‘ตั้งแต่เมื่อไหร่’ (since when). It can be realised as a Prepositional phrase with the Preposition ‘ตั้งแต่’ (since) and ‘จาก’ (from). For example:

ฉัน	ไม่ได้พบ	แดง	ตั้งแต่เดือนที่แล้ว
chan	mai dai phop	Deang	tung tae doen thee leaw
I	have not met	Deang	since last month
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Circumstance: Location: Temporal: Retrospective

(I have not met Deang since last month.)

The Prospective Temporal Location, on the other hand, expresses an orientation time in the future which can be probed by asking ‘จนกระทั่งเมื่อไหร่’ ‘จนกว่าเมื่อไหร่’ (Until when?). It can be realised as a prepositional phrase with preposition ‘จนกระทั่ง’ ‘จนกว่า’ (until, till). For example:

ฉัน	จะไม่ได้พบ	แดง	จนกว่าฤดูร้อนหน้า
chan	ja mai dai phop	deang	jon khwa ru do ron na
I	will not see	Deang	until next summer
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Circumstance: Location: Temporal: Prospective

(I will not see Deang until next summer.)

8.4.3 Manner

The Circumstantial Element of Manner can be divided into three subtypes: Manner, Quality and Comparison.

Mean refers to the means whereby a process takes place. The interrogative for this mode is ‘อย่างไร’ (How?) and ‘ด้วยอะไร, โดยอะไร’ (What with). This is usually expressed by a prepositional phrase such as the Preposition ‘โดย’ (by) or ‘ด้วย’ (with).

แดง	มา	ที่นี่	โดย	รถประจำทาง
deang	ma	theenee	doy	rot pra jum thang
Deang	comes	here	by	bus
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Circumstance: Manner: Mean	

(Deang comes here by bus.)

แดง	ตี	ลูก	ของเขา	ด้วย	ไม้ตะพด	ของเขา
deang	tee	luk	khong khao	doey	maitapot	khong khao
Deang	hits	kid	his	with	walking stick	his
Actor	Process: Material	Goal		Circumstance: Manner: Mean		

(Deang hits his kid with his walking stick.)

Quality refers to the process that takes place can be probed by ‘อย่างไร’ (How?). It can be realised as a nominal group and as an adverbial group that can be also gradable as an action and event. For example:

ผม	รัก	คุณ	มากๆ
pom	rak	khun	makmak
I	love	you	very much
Senser	Process: Mental	Phenomenon	Circumstance: Manner: Quality

Comparison is the last mode of the Circumstantial element of Manner. It specifies the manner of the Process by comparing it to the way it is performed. The interrogative of this mode is ‘เหมือน, อย่างกับ, เหมือนกับ อะไร’ (What...like?). It can be expressed by the prepositional phrase with ‘เหมือน, อย่างกับ, เหมือนกับ’ (like) ‘ไม่เหมือน, ไม่เหมือนกับ’ (unlike). Examples are shown below:

เขา	กิน	เหมือนกับ	หมู
khao	gin	muan gup	moo
he	eats	like	a pig
Actor	Process: Material	Circumstance : Manner : Comparison	

(He eats like a pig)

แดง	มี	หนังสือ	ไม่เหมือน	
deang	mee	nung sue	mai muan	dam

Deang	has	book	unlike	Dam
Possessor	Process: Possession	Possessed	Circumstance : Manner : Comparison	

(Deang’s book is not like Dam’s.)

8.4.4 Contingency

The Circumstantial Elements of Contingency express objectively identifiable causes or motives of an action or event. Matthiessen (1995: 341) refers to the Contingency as a Concession mode in the Circumstantial element of Cause. In Thai, Contingency includes Concession Circumstances with the Preposition ‘ทั้งๆที่’ (despite and in spite of), ‘ถึงแม้ว่า, and แม้ว่าจะ’ (though and although). For example:

ทั้งๆที่	เหนื่อย	เธอ	ยังคงไป	ทำงาน
tung tung thee	nue	thur	yung khong pai	tham ngan
Despite	exhaustion	she	still goes	work
Circumstantial: Contingency		Actor	Process: Material	

(Despite exhaustion, she still goes to work.)

It should be noted that the Circumstantial in Thai usually appears as a clause rather than as a Prepositional Phrase. Examples are shown below:

ถึงแม้ว่า	เธอ	เหนื่อย	เธอ	ยังคงไป	ทำงาน
tung mea wa	thur	nue	thur	yung khong pai	tham ngan

although	she	tired	she	still goes	to work
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(Although she is tired, she is still going to work.)

ทั้งๆที่	เธอ	รวย	เธอ	ก็ไม่เคย	ดูถูก	คนอื่น
thung	thur	ruy	thur	Kor mai	do took	khon eun
thung tee				keoy		
despite	she	rich	she	never	looks down on	other people

(Despite being rich she never looks down on other people.)

8.4.5 Cause

The Circumstantial elements of Cause comprise of four subtypes: Reason, Purpose, Condition and Behalf.

Reason expresses the reason for which the process takes place or what causes it. The interrogative for this mode is ‘ทำไม’ (Why?) It is expressed by a Prepositional Phrase with the Preposition ‘เพราะ, เพราะว่’ (because, because of) ‘เนื่องจาก’ ‘เนื่องด้วย’ (due to) Examples as below:

ผม	เปลี่ยนแปลง	ตัวเอง	เพราะ	คุณ
pom	plean plang	toi aeng	prow	khun
I	change	myself	because of	you
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Circumstantial: Cause: Reason	

(I have changed because of you)

เนื่องด้วย	การประกาศห้าม ออกจากบ้าน	ฉัน	จึงไม่สามารถ	ออกไปข้าง นอก
nungdoi	gam pra gat harm ook jark barn	chan	jung mai samart	ook pai khang nok
Due to	the curfew	I	cannot	go out
Circumstantial: Cause: Reason		Actor	Process: Material	

(Due to the curfew, I cannot go out.)

The second mode is Purpose. Purpose expresses the purpose for which an action or event takes place. The interrogative corresponding is ‘เพื่ออะไร’ (What for?). It is realised by the Prepositional Phrase with the Preposition ‘เพื่อ’ (for), ‘เพื่อว่า’ (so that) For example:

เขา	ไป	ที่นั่น	เพื่อ	เล่นการพนัน
khao	pai	thee nun	peu	len gam pa nun
he	goes	there	for	gambling
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Circumstantial: Reason: Purpose	

(He goes there for gambling.)

The third mode is Condition. It specifies the condition under which the performance of a process takes place. The interrogative corresponds with this mode is ‘ในกรณีไหน’

(In/ under what condition?). The Condition is realised with the Preposition ‘ถ้า’ (if) and ‘ในกรณีที่’ (in case of). Examples are given below:

ฉัน	จะตำหนิ	เธอ	ในกรณีนั้น
chan	ja tum ni	thur	nai gor ra nee nun
I	will blame	her	in this case
Sayer	Process: Verbal	Receiver	Circumstantial: Reason: Condition

(In this case, I will blame her.)

ถ้า	พบ	เธอ	ฉัน	จะบอก	เธอ
tha	phop	thur	chan	ja bok	thur
If	meet	she	I	will tell	she
Circumstantial: Reason: Condition			Sayer	Process: Verbal	Receiver

(If I meet her, I will tell her.)

The last mode of the Circumstantial element of Cause is Behalf. Expressions of Behalf represent the entity, usually a person, on whose behalf or for whose sake the action is undertaken or who is it for. The interrogative corresponding is ‘เพื่อใคร’ (Who for?).

It is realised as a prepositional phrase with the prepositions ‘เพื่อ’ (for) and ‘แทน’ (on behalf of). Examples as below:

เขา	ทำ	ทุกอย่าง	เพื่อ	ลูกๆ	ของเขา
khao	tham	took yang	peu	luk luk	khong khao
he	does	everything	for	kids	his
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Circumstantial: Reason: Purpose		

(He does everything for his children.)

Note that the Circumstance of Cause in reason, purpose and condition mode is like the Circumstance of Contingency, it can be typically realised as a clause rather than a Prepositional Phrase. Examples as shown below:

ฉัน	ไป	ดู	ภาพ-	ไม่	เพราะ	ฉัน	ยุ่ง	มาก
			ยนตร์	ได้	ว่า			
chan	pai	doo	parp pa yon	maidai	prowwa	chan	yoong	mak
I	go	watch	movie	no	because	I	busy	very

(I cannot go to see the movie because I am very busy.)

ฉัน	จะกลับ	บ้าน	เดี๋ยวนี้	เพื่อที่	ทุกคน	จะ	สบาย
						ได้	ใจ
chan	jag lup	barn	deaw nee	peu thee	took khon	jadai	sabai jai

I	will return	home	now	so that	everyone	will be	comfortab le
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(I will return home now so that everyone will be happy.)

ถ้า	ฝน	ตก	ฉัน	จะไม่	ออกไปข้าง นอก	วันนี้
tha	fon	tok	chan	jamai	ook pai khang nok	wannee
If	rain	fall	I	will not	go out	today

(If it rains, I will not go out today.)

8.4.6 Accompaniment

The Accompaniment corresponds to the interrogatives ‘และ/ กับ ใครอีก’, ‘และ/ กับ อะไรอีก’ (and who/ what else?), ‘แต่ไม่ใช่ใคร/ อะไร’ (but not who/ what?). The Accompaniment also presents the meanings ‘และ’ (and) ‘หรือ’ (or), ‘ไม่ใช่’ (not). It is expressed by Prepositional Phrases with the Prepositions ‘กับ’ (with), ‘โดยไม่มี’, ‘โดยไม่รวม’ (without) ‘แทนที่’ (instead of) ‘นอกจากนี้’ (besides) and ‘ด้วยเหมือนกัน’ (as well as).

Halliday (1985: 141) sets out the table below to explain the Accompaniment Circumstantial modes:

	WH – form	Examples
--	-----------	----------

Comitative, positive: Accompanied by	Who/ What with/ And who/ What else?	(แดงมาที่นี่ 'กับ' ดำ) Deang comes here with Dam.
Comitative, negative: Not accompanied with	But not who/ What?	(แต่แดงมาที่นี่ 'โดยไม่มี' ภรรยาของเขาไปด้วย) Deang comes here without his wife.
Additive, positive: In addition to	And who/ What else?	(ดำก็มาที่นี่ 'ด้วยเหมือน กัน' กับแดง) Dam comes here as well as Deang.
Additive, negative: As alternative to	And not who/ What?	(ดำมาที่นี่ 'แทนที่' (จะเป็น) ภรรยาของแดง (มา)) Dam comes here instead of Deang's wife

Table 8.4.6 Accompaniment

(Based on Halliday (1985: 141) Table 5(16) Examples of Accompaniment circumstantial)

The Circumstance of Accompaniment can be classified into three subtypes:

- (i) Process – Oriented Accompaniment
- (ii) Non – Participant – Oriented Accompaniment
- (iii) Participant – Oriented Accompaniment

Process – Oriented Accompaniment

The entity of the Circumstance of Accompaniment is realised by an abstract nominal that is derived from a verb such as ‘ยิ้ม’ (a smile) ‘กระหยิ่ม’ (a grin) ‘หัวเราะ’ (a laugh). According to Halliday (1994: 156), this type of Circumstance is treated as a Process – Oriented Accompaniment or as an equivalent to an ‘Accompanying process’. In Thai, the Process – Oriented Accompaniment may typically be seen in narrative works such as fairy tales, fiction and novels. For example:

แดง	พูด	พร้อมกับ	อมยิ้ม
deang	pood	prom gup	om yim
Deang	says	with	a smile
Sayer	Process: Verbal	Circumstance: Accompaniment	

(Deang says with a smile.)

Non – participant - oriented accompaniment

The entity having the function which is realised by an animate/ human nominal has the entity realising part of the Circumstance of Accompaniment that is an inanimate/

non human nominal in the sentence but they both cannot be conjoined as a single participant. Take this clause as an example:

เธอ	มา	ที่นี่	พร้อมด้วย	ไม้ตะพด
thur	ma	theenee	prom doey	mai ta pot
she	comes	here	with	a walking stick.
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Circumstance: Accompaniment	

(She comes here with a walking stick.)

But the participants ‘เธอ’ (she) and ‘ไม้ตะพด’ (a walking stick) cannot be conjoined as a single participant. It would sound odd to have this clause in Thai.

*เธอ	และ	ไม้ตะพด	มา	ที่นี่
thur	lae	mai ta pot	ma	theenee
she	and	a walking stick	come	here

(*She and a walking stick come here)

Participant - Oriented Accompaniment

Both the entity realising part of the Circumstance of Accompaniment that is realised by the same type of animate/ human nominal can conjoined as a single participant.

แดง	และ	ดำ	กำลังกิน	อาหารมือเย็น
Deang	lae	Dam	gum lung gin	arharn mue yen
Deang	and	Dam	are eating	dinner.
Actor			Process: Material	Goal

(Deang and Dam are eating dinner.)

8.4.7 Matter

Matter expresses the subject matter or topic. Halliday (1985) points out that Matter corresponds to the interrogative ‘เกี่ยวกับอะไร’ (What about?). It is typically expressed by prepositional phrases with only the Preposition ‘เกี่ยวกับ’ (about, of) in Thai; meanwhile, it can be expressed by other prepositions ‘เกี่ยวข้องกับ’ (concerning), (with regarding to) and (regarding) in English language. It occurs particularly with the Verbal processes as has been pointed out in the Verbal Process section, and they have also appeared in certain mental processes. Take these clauses as examples:

With the Verbal Process:

แดง		เกี่ยวกับ	งาน	ใหม่	ของเขา

deang	gum lang lao	geaw gup	ngan	mai	khong khao
Deang	is talking	about	job	new	his
Sayer	Process: Verbal	Circumstance			

(Deang is talking about his new job.)

With the Mental Process:

แดง	กังวล	เกี่ยวกับ	ลูกๆ	ของเขา
deang	gung won	geaw gup	luk luk	khong khao
Deang	worries	about	children	his
Sayer	Process: Verbal	Circumstance		

(Deang worries about his children.)

8.4.8 Role

The Role as a Circumstantial Element refers to the role or capacity in which a participant is involved in the process. It basically answers the question ‘อย่างกับอะไร’ (What as?), and it also presents the meaning of ‘be’ or ‘เป็น อยู่ คือ’ in Thai in the form of Circumstance. It can be realised as a Prepositional Phrase with the Preposition ‘ในฐานะที่เป็น’ (as) in the guise mode of a Role Circumstantial Element in order to construe a meaning that is closed to the relational attributive process. For example:

แดง	เป็น	หมอ
-----	------	-----

deang	pen	mor
Deang	be	doctor
Carrier	Process: Relation (Intensive)	Attribute

(Deang is a doctor.)

แดง	ทำงาน	ในฐานะที่เป็น	หมอ
deang	thamngan	naitanatheepen	mor
Deang	work	as	doctor
Actor	Process: Material	Circumstantial: Role: Guise	

(Deang works as a doctor.)

Another mode of the Circumstantial Role is ‘Product’. Product answers the question ‘ให้เป็นอะไร เข้าสู่อะไร กลายเป็นอะไร’ (What into?). It is realised as a preposition phrase with the Preposition ‘ให้เป็น เข้าสู่ กลายเป็น’ (into). For example:

แดง	ผ่า	แตงโม	ให้เป็น	สี่ส่วน
deang	pha	tangmo	haipen	seesuan
Deang	cut	watermelon	into	4 parts
Actor	Process: Material	Goal	Circumstantial: Role: Product	

(Deang cuts the watermelon into four parts.)

8.4.9 Angle

Angle refers to the angle on the process. It answers the questions such as ‘สอดคล้องกับใคร’ (According to whom?), ‘สอดคล้องกับอะไร’ (According to what?) and ‘สอดคล้องกับความคิดของใคร’ (According to whose opinion?). It can be realised as a

Prepositional Phrase with the Preposition ‘สอดคล้องกับ’ ‘ตามที่’ (according to, to) and ‘สำหรับ’ (for). The Angle is normally construed in the meaning in a Verbal Clause Complex or Sensing in a Mental Clause Complex. In short, it can be treated as the equivalent to a Projecting Mental Process. For example:

สอดคล้องกับ	แผนที่	ฉัน	คิดว่า	เรา	มา	ถูก	ทาง
sod krong gup	pan thee	chan	kid wa	rao	ma	took	tang
According to	the map	I	think that	we	come	right	way
Circumstance: Angle		Senser	Process: Mental	Actor	Process: Material	Circumstance: Location	

(According to the map, I think, we have come the right way.)

สำหรับ	ฉัน	ฉัน	คิดว่า	ฉัน	จะยอมแพ้
sum rap	chan	chan	kidwa	chan	ja yorm pae
for	I	I	think	I	will give up
Circumstance: Angle		Senser	Process: Mental	Actor	Process: Material

(For me, I think I will give up.)

8.5 Summary

The Circumstance is a kind of additional minor process of TRANSITIVITY. We began this chapter by examining the essential differences between Participants and Circumstances. The distinction between Participant and Circumstance is probably

relevant in all language but sometimes it has been blurred. Therefore, we have also pointed out cases of ambiguity between them. Then we have explored each type of circumstance in Thai language. We have represented the Processes and Clauses in the preceding chapters.

8.6 Concluding remarks

We have now completed the exploration of Circumstantial Elements on Thai TRANSITIVITY as well as the analyses of TRANSITIVITY Processes on Thai. We now turn to chapter IX, the conclusion chapter. The conclusions, the implications and the recommendations through out the next chapter will be able to use as a conceptual framework for teaching language to students.

CHAPTER IX

Implications, Conclusions and Recommendations

9.1 Introduction

In this final chapter of the thesis, the findings from chapter V to chapter VIII are discussed further in the implications section, the study's conclusions are identified, and recommendations are made for future studies.

9.2 Implications for Language Teaching

In this section, we look at the use of Systemic Functional Grammar in language teaching and learning for both Thai and English language teaching.

In Thailand, language teachers still use the traditional grammar method to teach both English and Thai language for students (IR.14). The main concept of teaching is teaching vocabulary and grammar. The concepts of correctness and good grammar are still used to teach both languages. Teachers focus on rules and accuracy according to standard languages. However, nowadays there are a lot of commercial schools that open for the particular reason of teaching only English or Thai language, they mainly focus on communication and avoid teaching grammar.

Both types of schools want their students to be both accurate and fluent users of the target languages but they are faced with an education paradox or language obstruction. The Traditional Grammar may be obscured with the variations that occur in daily conversation. The rules of language may prevent students from using the language fluently and communicatively. In the second type of schools, students are not concerned about grammar when they are speaking but they may not be able to use the varieties of language they need. For example, they may find difficulties when they have to do writing tasks.

Functional Grammar is the middle way between Traditional Grammar and Communicative Grammar, which is no grammar at all (IR.13). Teachers who focus on Functional Grammar think of grammar as a way of describing language in terms of pattern and function, and they must be able to describe the potential of language (IR.14). In short, teachers must be able to describe how to use language to make meaning and think about language in terms of units called texts and contexts.

According to Halliday and Martin (1993: 25) teachers with a background in Functional Grammar must be able to treat language and social context as complementary levels of semiosis, related by the concept of realisation. The relationship between language and social context is presented in Figure 9.1 (Halliday and Martin, 1993: 25). This helps students to use the target language in culturally and social relevant appropriate and purposeful ways. Students may learn how variation in context accounts for variation in language use. (Butt et al, 2001)

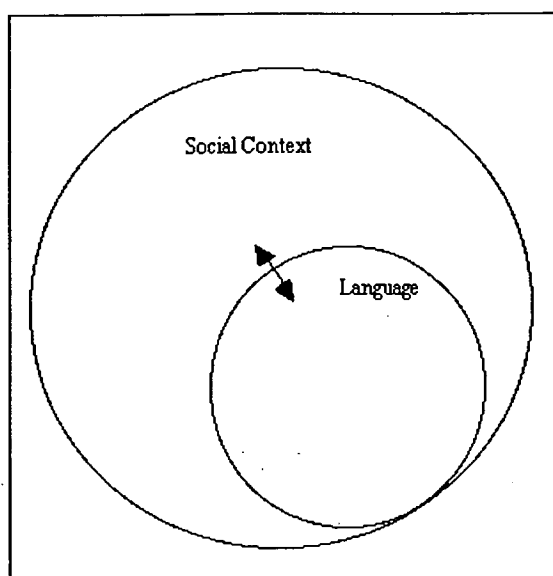


Figure 9.1 The relationship between language and social context

(IR. 15)

As can be seen from Figure 9.1, context is essential for understanding a language. Teachers must be able to describe the social and cultural world of people of the target language. For example, to teach Thai language, when teachers need to teach vocabulary about the weather, they have to begin with explaining how the weather is in Thailand, and vice versa when they teach English language.

The relationship in terms of texts and contexts in Functional Grammar can be described as in Figure 9.2.

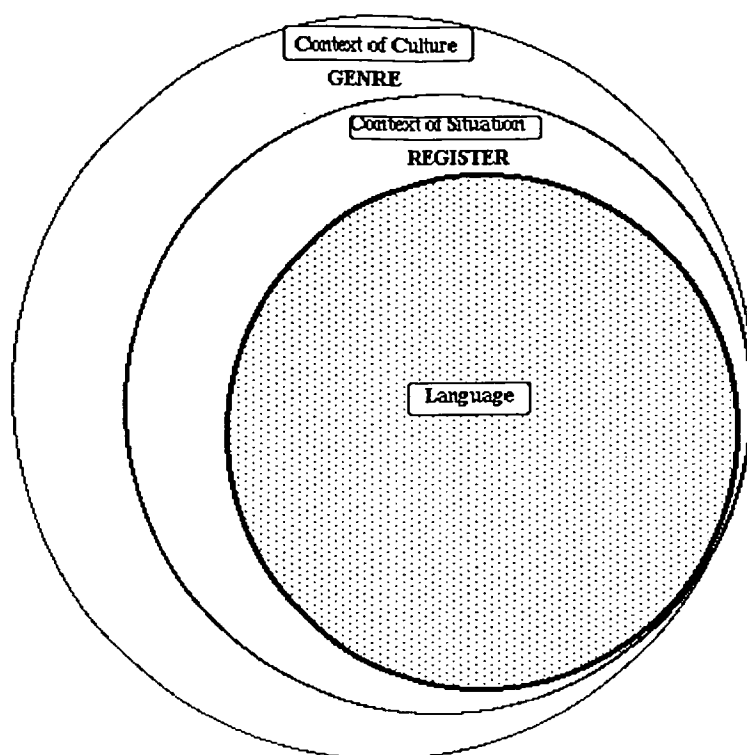


Figure 9.2 text (language) and contexts

(IR.15)

A text (language) always occurs in two contexts these are the context of situation and context of culture. The context of culture, which is on the outer context, can be thought of as deriving from a vast complex network of all the genres which make up a particular culture. Genres include all of those from daily conversational and in particular from social life between one culture and another. The inner context is the context of situation or registers which is the second aspect of social context that influences the linguistic realisation of the genre. Context of situation covers the things going on in the world outside the text. It has been theorised by Halliday (Halliday and Hasan, 1985: 12) in terms of contextual variables of Field, Tenor and Mode, represented in Figure 9.3.

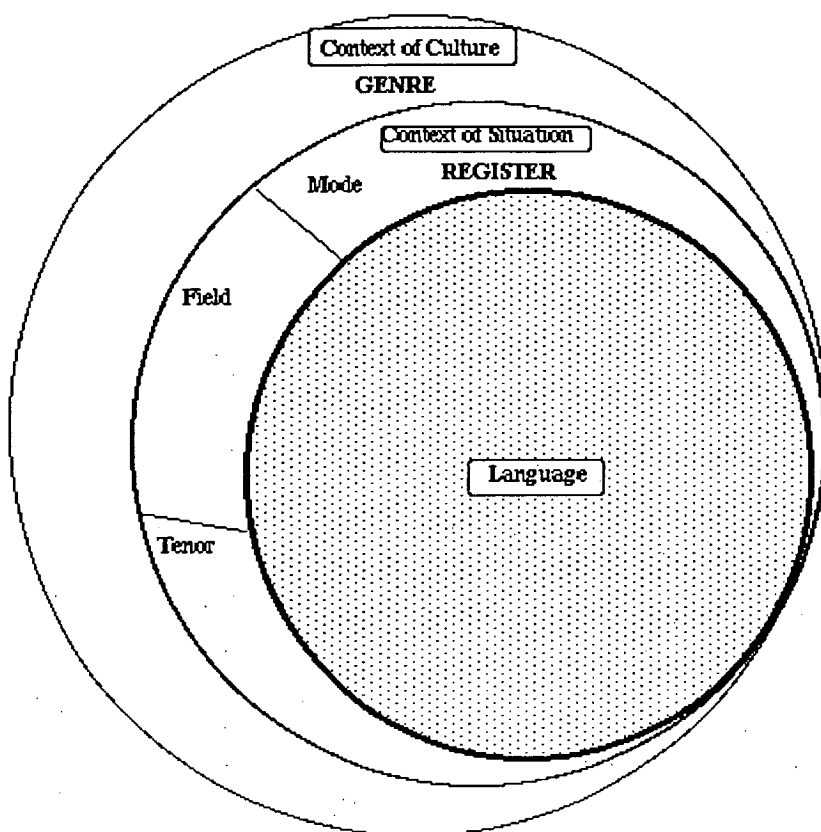


Figure 9.3 Mode Field and Tenor

(IR.15)

Briefly, (1) Mode is the kind of text that is being made, (2) Field refers to what is happening and includes long or short term goals of context which are to be talked or written about, and (3) Tenor refers to who is taking part and the relationship between speaker and hearer or writer and reader.

Teachers who use Functional Grammar accept that context and text depend on each other in the relationship according to Figures 9.1 - 9.3. They must be able to help students investigate the context of the texts they encounter and show them how to use knowledge of context to make meaning and understand the whole text even more effectively. Teachers can also explain the use of Field, Mode and Tenor in a variety of language which occurs in the context of the situation. The relationship of texts and

contexts can help a teacher to identify words, meanings and structures that are appropriate in the target language. This means teachers help students to work with the grammar of whole texts in context and to work with grammar in term of pattern and function.

Moreover, teachers must have idea about the strata of language or the levels of the language which consists of semantics, lexicogrammar and phonology or graphology.

Consider Figure 9.4 below:

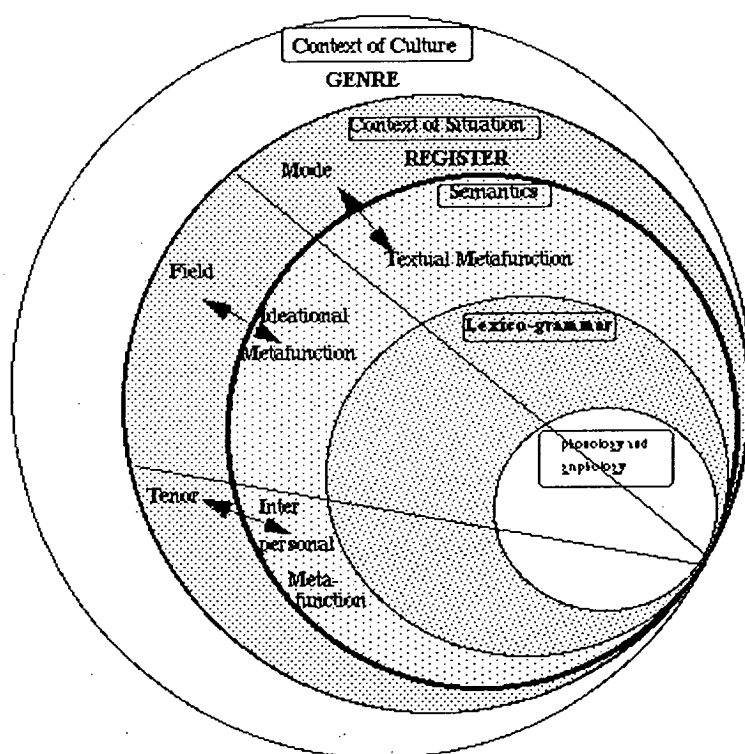


Figure 9.4 Strata or Levels of the Language

(IR.15)

Semantics is the interface between language and the context of the situation; so that, it copes with the meanings that are involved with Field – Ideational meaning, Tenor –

Interpersonal meaning and Mode – Textual meaning. Lexicogrammar is an intermediate level between semantics and phonology or graphology. It is a resource for wording or signing meanings. The lower level is phonology, a system of sounds, and graphology, a system of writing and sometimes including a system of gesture or a sign language.

The relationship between each layer or level occurs when people read and say something in a language, meanings are realised as wordings which are then realised by sounds or letters. These levels of language are very important because they refer to the potential of language which teachers with a Functional Grammar background must know in order to explain how to make meanings in language. At this point, the system of meanings which are Experiential, Interpersonal and Textual need to be explained to help teachers know how to operate simultaneously in each clause.

Ideational, experiential or Logical meanings construing Field are realised Lexicogrammatically by the system of TRANSACTIVITY (IR.16). They interpret and represent experience of phenomenon in the world and in the consciousness by modeling experiential meanings in terms of Processes, Participants and Circumstances.

Interpersonal meanings are realised lexicogrammatically by systems of Mood and Modality. Mood systems interpret and represent an ongoing exchange between interactants by assuming and assigning speech roles which are giving or demanding goods and services. They focus on the type of the clauses such as Declaratives,

Interrogatives and Imperatives which can be found in both positive and negative clauses.

Textual meanings construed by Mode are grammatical systems of Theme and Information focus or Theme and Rheme.

The systems above operate in terms of Metafunctions which have the potential to explain the role of function and meaning in the clauses. Consider this clause as an example:

แดง	จะ	เปิด	หน้าต่าง
deang	ja	perd	na-tang
Deang	will	open	the window.
Actor	Process: Material		Goal
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement
Theme	Rheme		

Deang will open the window.

The metafunctions permeating register at the level of social context, the semantic and the lexicogrammatical levels of language are represented in the clause “Deang will open the window”.

In this thesis, we have focused on the grammar function called TRANSITIVITY or Experiential Grammar as it is useful to introduce it to teaching language programs. The focus of TRANSITIVITY is as shown in Figure 9.5.

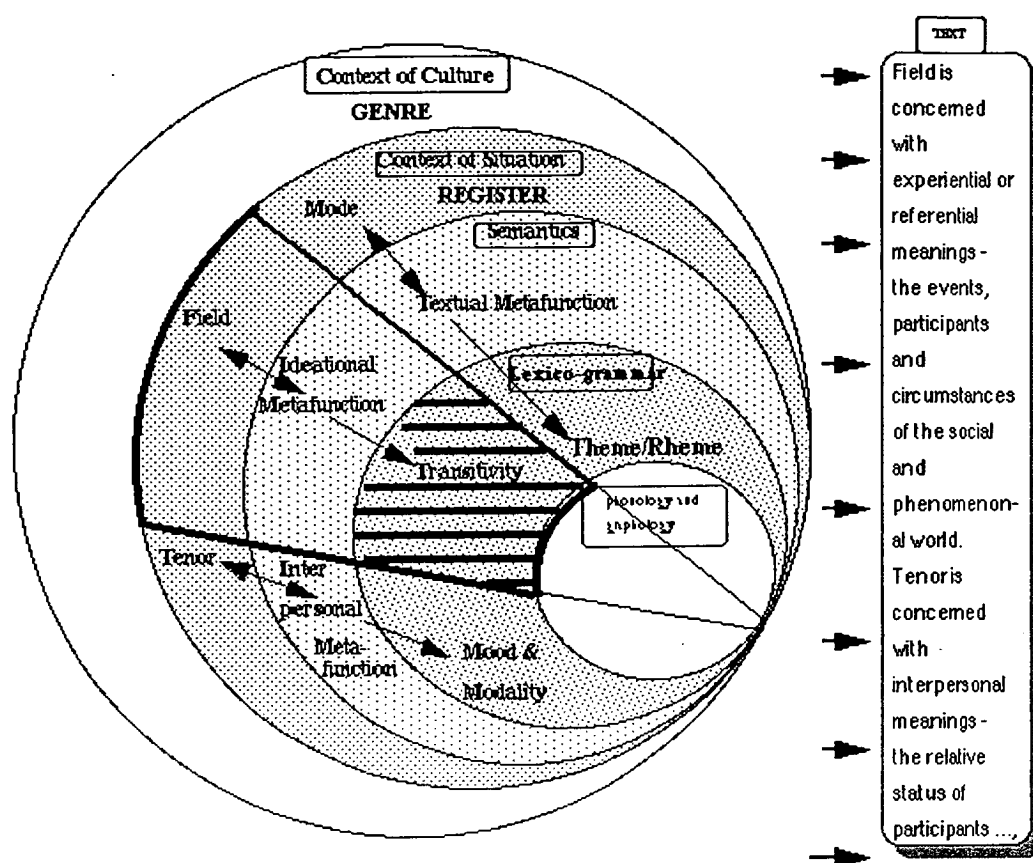


Figure 9.5 TRANSITIVITY

(IR.15)

Ideational Metafunction is the potential of a language to make the meaning about human experience. Ideational Metafunction and Experiential Grammar describe how people represent their experience through language by choosing different clause constituents. It is useful for teachers to introduce students to this, to make meanings in the target language represent their experience explicitly and systematically. There are three main constituents of the TRANSITIVITY System these are the types of Process, the participant roles and the Types of Circumstances as has been explored in chapter V- chapter VIII. A study of these constituents reveals how function, meaning and structure are interrelated. This is because first of all the processes in the clauses are grouped in to six specific functions according to their meaning potential and in terms of structure. Then the participants can be added according to each Process. The

circumstances are optional, which may be added to represent when and where the processes are taking place. Teachers may create the activities in classes about the three constituents. For example, teachers may ask questions about the authentic clauses or text about those constituents: What is the process in the clause? How many processes are taking place in the text? What did the process tell us? Who was doing the process? How many people are involved in the process? Where and when has the process been going on or taking place? These activities may reveal many structural patterns that the language learner is aiming to control including the meaning of the clause or even the whole authentic text. In short, from these activities students will be able to manage the clause and the expression of Field through Experiential Grammar to represent the experiences of the world.

The study of Experiential Grammar can also improve writing skill for students particularly students who want to write essays within a specialised discipline. Students can learn to select the processes which are appropriate to their writing or texts that they are going to write. They can express the Participants and Circumstances by setting the character, place and time in their writing according to the context of situation. For example, to produce an essay related to medical science, students have to select technical terms related to medicine and put those words into clauses or texts. Then, they have to choose the appropriate Processes and Participants related to the context of the situation such as choosing the Relational Process if they want to identify or describe medicine, choosing material process if they want to reveal what happens, or choosing Existential process if they want to introduce things, people and places. After that, they have to use the Circumstances to enhance the precision and to identify conditions or constraints.

9.3 Summary

An attempt has been made to explore the Functional Grammar with particular reference to Thai TRANSITIVITY. We have also provided implications for language teaching and learning in the previous section of this chapter. In this section, we explain how knowledge of Functional Grammar is useful to teachers and learners in Thailand.

The potential of language can be realised, teachers can draw students' attention to salient language features and patterns. Students themselves can be more conscious, strategic and effective in their language choice.

Teachers can help students build strategies for recognising and analysing varieties of language in appropriate contexts, strategies that guarantee meaningful language learning that will continue long after classes have ended.

Teachers can show students how to recognise texts which share the same kind of meanings. In this way students can transfer knowledge about language use from one context to related contexts.

Students can gain confidence and expertise with different text patterns, they are able to adapt, combine and customise these patterns to meet individual and complex purposes.

9.4 Suggestions for Future Research

As the topic of this research is 'A Functional Grammar analysis on Thai TRANSITIVITY', an attempt has been made with particular reference to the system of TRANSITIVITY on Thai language which is one of the systems in Metafunctions. Follow up this research can be a study of Functional Grammar on Thai Mood or Modality and Thai Theme. By understanding more how grammar makes meanings, researchers may be able to add a very productive and critical dimension to the research. They may develop the understanding of how the strata or levels of language operate to make meanings much more explicit.

9.5 Concluding Remarks

We have now completed this study on Functional Grammar analysis of an aspect of Thai grammar which is based on the theoretical framework of Systemic Functional theory developed by M.A.K Halliday and other systemicists. We wish the implications that have been made will lead to improve teaching strategies for both Thai and English language learning and teaching in Thailand. We have also made suggestions for further research which may lead other researchers to explore Functional Grammar on other interesting systems which are useful for the educational system in Thailand.

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